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ABSTRACT

This training package assists educators in improving the delivery of services to culturally and linguistically diverse exceptional (CLDE) students at the classroom level. It is based on the necessity of addressing multiple systems (e.g., the child, the family, and the school), with emphasis on mildly disabled over other levels of disability and on Hispanics over other ethnolinguistic groups because of the dominance of these groups in the CLDE population. It models innovative training approaches including video-based training segments, role playing and simulations, and use of cooperative group work. The package is organized into five modules: (1) the Preview Module, which covers characteristics of CLDE children, the role of culture, acculturation, and developmental stages of second language acquisition; (2) the Specialized Informal Assessment Module, which covers language proficiency, academic skills, and learning style/social skills; (3) the Culturally and Linguistically Appropriate Programming Module, which covers the learning environment, oral language programs and materials, and literacy programs and materials; (4) the Language Minority Parent Involvement Module, which covers communicating with culturally and linguistically diverse parents, educating parents about special education, and increasing minority parent involvement; and (5) the School-Based Support/Consulting for Mainstreaming Module, which covers strategies for working with paraprofessionals, consultant techniques in school settings, and decision making. (Individual modules contain references.) (DB)

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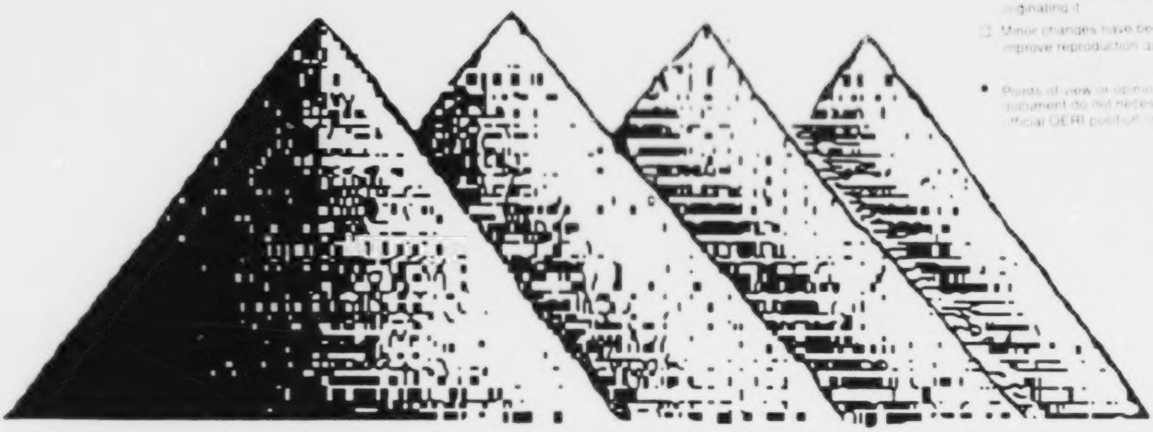

MULTISYSTEM

Systematic Instructional Planning for Exceptional Bilingual Students

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MULTISYSTEM

SYSTEMATIC INSTRUCTIONAL PLANNING FOR EXCEPTIONAL BILINGUAL STUDENTS

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MULTISYSTEM

Systematic Instructional Planning for Exceptional Bilingual Students

Multisystem is an exciting, state-of-the-art, introductory training package designed for educators who serve culturally and linguistically diverse exceptional (CLDE) students. Developed in New York State, and funded by the Office of Special Education and Rehabilitative Services, the program was produced by Nancy Cloud, Patricia Medeiros Landurand, bilingual/multicultural special educators and Sophia Wu, media specialist at the Institute for Urban and Minority Education at Teachers College, Columbia University. Multisystem was developed to assist educators in improving the delivery of services to culturally and linguistically diverse exceptional (CLDE) students at the classroom level.

The meaning of MULTISYSTEM is derived from the principle that unless service providers address multiple systems (e.g. *the child* through on-going classroom-based assessment and appropriate programming, *the home*; through positive interaction with and involvement of the family and *the school*; through active coordination of services across service providers), an effective, meaningful program cannot be offered to the child. This is particularly true with culturally and linguistically diverse exceptional students.

Based on it's philosophy, the Multisystem training package consists of four modules: (1) specialized informal assessment, (2) culturally and linguistically appropriate programming, (3) language minority parent involvement strategies, and (4) provision of school-based support/consulting. These modules are preceded by a preview section that introduces basic concepts and theories related to serving this special population of students. Training segments utilized were derived from diverse sources and this richness of perspectives is evident throughout the training curriculum.

Multisystem is field-oriented in every respect. It was developed through a coordinated approach which involved personnel from the Bureau of Bilingual Education and the Office for Education of Children with Handicapping Conditions, New York State Education Department; local school districts; including Buffalo Public Schools and Community School Districts #7, #8, #9. #10, #11, and #12 in the Bronx borough of New York City under the coordination of the Bronx Regional Office; and a major university; Teachers College, Columbia University. Multisystem was developed by a multiethnic, multilingual team of professionals, predominantly women. The project actively included ethnic minority individuals and individuals with disabilities. The pages which follow list those persons involved in the development process over the three years of the project. Special mention is made of non-project staff who freely dedicated their time and talents to make this product a reality. Multisystem was truly a collaborative effort and the richness of the final product is evidence of the benefits of such meaningful collaboration.

The field-oriented nature of the curriculum is further reflected through the inclusion of actual case material throughout the curriculum, demonstrating the emphasis placed on real children with real needs in real school environments. While the curriculum attempts to be as inclusive as possible, emphasis is placed on the mildly handicapped over other levels of disability and on Hispanics over other ethnolinguistic groups since these groups predominate in the CLDE population currently being served across the nation. Multisystem was field-tested both within and outside of New York State in urban and suburban districts across a time span of three years and has proven effectiveness in establishing basic skills in service providers to work with this population of students.

Finally, the Multisystem training curriculum models innovative training approaches; including video-based training segments, role playing and simulations, and use of cooperative group work. Its diversity is its strength; multiple visions of what the product could be and needed to be; varied theoretical views, perspectives, strategies and curricula to meet the diverse educational needs of an ever-expanding population of CLDE learners.

For Victor Colón
and all his potential classmates
across the nation

With gratitude to;

Dr. Steven Benardo, John DiDonato, and Carmen Rivera, Bronx Regional Office, Division of Special Education, New York City Board of Education and, Dr. Joseph Vocolo, Olga Rico Armesto, Dr. Richard Quinn and Sheryl Blount-Carswell, Buffalo Public Schools for their support across the three years of this project;

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Pam Crowley, Yvonne DeGaetano, and Leila Arjona, colleagues and friends who donated generously of their time and considerable talents to narrate original Multisystem training tapes.

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Maynard, Elaine L	Teacher
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Nuñez, Grace	Teacher
Perez, Lillian	Teacher
Ramos, Myrna I	Teacher
Rivera, Lucy Rodriguez	Teacher
Rivera, Salvador	Teacher
Rivera, Yasmin	Teacher
Rivera, Zulma	Teacher
Rodriguez, Ileana	Teacher
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Santana, Jeannette	Teacher
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Field Test Participants
Bronx 1987 - 1988

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Alvarez, Regla	Teacher
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Jirak, Rita	Resource Specialist
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Massey, Angela	Resource Specialist
Noisy, Yanick	Teacher
Pardo, Norma	Resource Specialist
Perez, Helen	Teacher
Quiñones, Isabel	Teacher
Reveron, Margaret	Resource Specialist
Rivera, Petra	Teacher
Santiago, Ana C	Resource Specialist
Santiago, Lillian	Teacher
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Varghese, Samuel	Teacher
Vazquez, Elsie	Teacher

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Gonzalez, Gisela	Teacher
Hernandez, Adriana	Teacher
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May, Gloria	Resource Specialist
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Ramos, Brenda	Teacher
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Kuhn, Fran	Teacher
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Meyer, Crista	Teacher
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Wojcieson, Janice	Teacher

Field Test Participants
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Cintron, Felicita	Paraprofessional
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Howell, Loretta B	Teacher
McNeal, Errol	Resource Specialist
Nola, Florence	Teacher
Palmer, Stephanie H	Teacher
Rankin, Anita Joyce	Teacher
Rozier, Elizabeth	Resource Specialist
Schillman, Lizbeth	Teacher
Steiniger, Maria	Teacher
Szen, Beverly	Teacher
Turpin, Helen	Teacher
Tydus, Kathryn,	Teacher
Walters, Delia	Teacher
Wallace, Fortson, Beatrice	Teacher
Wild, Carol Ann	Teacher
Wilig Smith, Gail	Teacher

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Hermina, Nicholas	Resource specialist
Lucas, Andrea M	Resource Specialist
Lult, Rita A	Teacher
Meyer, Elba C	Paraprofessional
Morales, Carmen	Teacher
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Orloff, Roseanna C	Teacher
Osorio, Rafael A	Teacher
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MULTISYSTEM

Systematic Instructional Planning for
Exceptional Bilingual Students

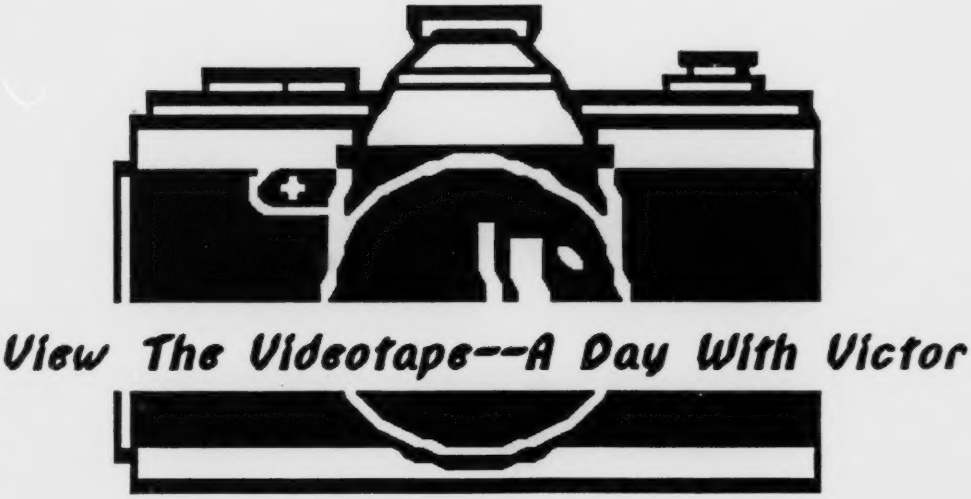
PREVIEW

INTENT OF THE PREVIEW SECTION

This section is designed to provide a foundation for the four training modules which follow by acquainting participants with basic concepts and theories in three major areas: cultural transmission, second language acquisition, and the acculturation process. In all cases, to the extent possible, the preview section will account for any special considerations imposed by the presence of a handicapping condition in the child.

I. WHO ARE CULTURALLY AND LINGUISTICALLY DIVERSE EXCEPTIONAL (CLDE) CHILDREN AND WHAT ARE THEIR SPECIAL NEEDS?

A. *A DAY WITH VICTOR*: A video-taped documentary of an exceptional bilingual child.


View The Videotape--A Day With Victor

B. *A DAY WITH VICTOR:* Debriefing Activity.

ACTIVITY

After you have viewed "A Day With Victor"......

Use 4 words to describe Victor:

What scenes were most meaningful to you? Why?

If you speak Spanish, what special points do you feel might have been lost to your non-Spanish-speaking colleagues which you would like to share?

What feelings did your day with Victor evoke in you?

ACTIVITY *(cont'd)*

What did the tape communicate to you about each term in the acronym (CLDE): Culturally and Linguistically Diverse Exceptional students?

C--

L--

D--

E--

What did the music communicate to you?

Describe Victor's family in three words:

Was it helpful to spend a day with Victor? Why?

II. CULTURAL TRANSMISSION AND THE ESTABLISHMENT OF CULTURAL CHARACTERISTICS

A. What is Culture?

Culture is defined in different ways by different people. According to Chamberlain & Landurand (in press), culture refers to the values, norms and traditions that affect the way we perceive, interact and think about the world. Each culture is equally legitimate and has its own intrinsic values. Sensitive educators are acutely aware of the negative effects that racial, ethnic, and class discrimination can have on self-esteem and learning.

Cultural characteristics can be classified as *external*; including ways of dress, food, religious practices, styles of living, music, and language; or *internal*, including thinking patterns, ways of perceiving and learning styles. Contrary to a commonly held belief, culture is not a product or knowledge but a process; the filter through which we each perceive and learn about the world.

B. What Are Some External Characteristics of Culture?

Every culture exhibits its own external characteristics. The types of religious practices, kinds of dress, variety of foods, music, dances, and types of homes are but a few examples of external symbols that exist for each culture. External symbols vary within every culture as well, and are in constant evolution. Teachers need to be careful not to reinforce outdated stereotypes as they focus on and value external symbols. Parents and community members can help keep school personnel informed about the present culture of their students.

Teachers can help students explore the external characteristics of culture that exist for others in their own classrooms and to understand and appreciate the differences that will exist. For example, a student who eats octopus is not "weird" and should not be looked at as deviant or abnormal. Students should be helped to understand that a difference is not a deviance but merely a distinction to be explored and respected.

Teachers can create classroom environments where respect for diverse values, customs, and habits can be fostered. This multicultural environment can be nurtured both formally and informally. Formal, concrete learning units exploring *Christmas Around the World, Ethnic Foods, Songs and Literature, Heroes Around the World,* are but a few of the many units that will enhance students' appreciation of other cultures and their own.

C. What Are Some Internal (Hidden) Characteristics of Culture?

Hidden cultural characteristics (Hall, 1973, 1978) are those that are more difficult to observe and identify, particularly if one is not familiar with the culture. Nevertheless, it is crucial to understand internal cultural characteristics if one is to work successfully with CLDE children. Children's behavior in particular circumstances and at particular times and places will be influenced by past cultural experience. For example, how children see and interpret a particular picture or story will depend upon what cultural filter they use. Whether a child who has been pushed by another child will tell the teacher, push the other child back, walk away, and/or try to act on his/her own behalf will be determined, in part, by cultural training. Teachers must know about their students' cultures in order to interpret the behavior *isomorphically* (within the same framework). From this basis of respect and understanding, teachers can provide additional or alternative strategies that will help students perform more successfully in mainstream U.S. classrooms.

D. What Are Some Key Cultural Factors?

All cultures have certain common factors. We have chosen several to describe here: body movement, handling of space, touching, eye movement, and ordering of interactions.

1. Body Movement

Researchers have documented that in general Asian-American individuals tend to move less than European-American individuals, while Hispanic-American and African-American individuals tend to move more. Almanza and Mosley (1980) refer to this as "movement repertoire". They cite a study done by Guttentag (1972) in which black and white American preschool children were observed in different free play situations. It was reported that the most passive behaviors such as sitting, lying, or squatting were observed in European-American children 60% of the time while African-

American children were observed to do the same activities 20% of the time. The most active behaviors such as running or jumping were observed in African-American children 46% of the time, while the same activities were observed in European-American children 22% of the time. Certain movements such as intricate rhythmic finger tapping were observed in over 25% of the African-American children but in none of the European-American children. According to Almanza and Mosley,

> In many American schools, and especially inner-city schools, children are expected to talk or to move about only when directed to do so by the teacher. Those children whose style in the classroom is passive and who talk and move about according to teacher directions meet the normative standards and expectations common to elementary classrooms. Those children whose style is much more active and who talk and move about with or without teacher directions do not meet normative standards and expectations. They can conceivably become labeled as behavior problems because of their behavioral styles. (p. 610)

It is suggested that curriculum activities for children should consider movement repertoire. If children from certain cultural backgrounds appear to have larger movement repertoires than those of the mainstream, American culture, then this must be considered when developing activities for these children.

2. Sharing Space

People from different cultures use, value and share space differently. In some cultures it is considered appropriate for people to stand very close to each other while talking, where in other cultures people like to keep further apart. For example, Hispanic Americans often view mainstream Americans as "distant" because they prefer more space between speakers. On the other hand, mainstream Americans often view individuals who come "too close" as "pushy" or invading their private space.

In the educational environment, children and teachers of some cultures prefer a small, close working space while those of other cultures prefer wide-open, spacious working areas. Some children prefer to sit closely, others do not.

In the home environment, space is used differently by different cultures. In general, mainstream Americans tend to be more private, like to have separate rooms, and do not tend to live with the extended family. Many other cultural groups place a great deal of importance on the extended family, and very often many members of a family will share a living space. It is not uncommon to find family members of all ages living together and sharing everything, including sleeping quarters. Problems result when professionals do not recognize and accept these differences.

3. Touching

Rules for touching others vary from culture to culture. In the Portuguese- and Italian-American cultures it is acceptable for men to embrace upon greeting each other. In other cultures people exhibit more physically restrained greetings. Children in certain cultures are used to having frequent physical contact with adults and other children. In other cultures children are less demonstrative and prefer to have a more formal relationship with the teacher and with other children. Problems can arise when cultural styles do not match, and, therefore, it is important for teachers and students to recognize and openly discuss cultural variations in touching.

4. Eye Movement

Children from Portuguese- and Spanish-language backgrounds show respect by not looking persons of authority in the eye. Often teachers may perceive this as disrespect, although from the culture's perspective it is the highest form of respect. It is important for teachers to recognize that there are different ways of showing respect so that these differences do not cause misunderstanding.

5. Time Ordering of Interactions

Some cultures are polychronic. Students who come from polychronic cultures are taught to handle several interactions and activities at the same time. A student who is tapping his pencil, listening to the radio and studying at the same time may be accused of not working by some teachers. A polychronic teacher would be more comfortable with such behavior, as well as with many students asking for attention at the same time.

On the other hand, monochronic individuals teach children that interactions and activities are to occur one at a time. Teachers with monochronic styles will insist on starting and completing an activity before beginning another activity. They will also want to deal with just one student at a time. The maxim, "business before pleasure" reflects a monochronic style. In contrast, in certain cultures, business and pleasurable activities are seen as a whole, and can not be separated (Nine-Curt, 1976).

E. How Do Cultural Variations Affect Classroom Expectations?

Learning is profoundly influenced by culture. Not only what is learned, but when, how, why and where children acquire skills and information comes in large part from their culture (Shweder & LeVine, 1985). [*See chart on next page.*]

Culturally-determined values play a powerful role in cross-cultural interactions in learning settings. Like the factors mentioned in the last section, values often remain unexamined and are assumed to be universal. Issues such as morality and ethics, child-rearing practices, loyalty and friendship, teaching techniques (in the home as well as at school), and self-expression are important determinants of behavior. They are, also, a possible source of misunderstanding and friction. In this section, the issues of time, gender expectations, and cooperation/competition will be mentioned.

When minority students are encouraged to leave behind their family values in favor of majority or host culture values this may create problems for them. Students who affirm the mainstream beliefs may disappoint or alienate their families. If students uphold their families' beliefs, rejection by mainstream individuals may occur. It is important for teachers to communicate respect for students' beliefs while at the same time encouraging them to understand different points of view, and to respond appropriately in each environment.

1. Time

Time is viewed differently in different cultures. For mainstream Americans time "runs". In contrast, time "walks" for

Values and Life Styles
of
Cultural Group

Parent's Style
of
Teaching and Child Rearing

Child's Style of Communicating,
Relating to Others
and
Response to Incentives

Child's Preferred Mode
or Style of Learning

Hispanic-Americans. A popular American saying is "time is money". Mainstream Americans place great emphasis and importance on being on time and using time wisely. In contrast, time is more expendable in other cultures, and relationships take priority over punctuality. Promptness is not as valued and it is expected that people will not adhere to strict time schedules in many cultures.

The differences in how time is valued can cause students and teachers many problems. Students from cultures that do not have strict rules about time will find adjusting to mainstream American time rules very difficult. Teachers may be angry at them for lateness or for not handing in assignments on time. A further problem arises when these students are given timed tests: test results may be distorted by students' lack of experience with time pressures and so will not reflect accurately the student's skills or knowledge.

It is important for school personnel to recognize these differences in time use and time perception but to refrain from attributing underlying motives to the students. Teachers, for example, should not assume that "lateness" means the student doesn't care or is impolite. Tolerance and cross-cultural understanding will be needed as students are helped to adjust to mainstream time norms.

2. Gender-Determined Roles

Expectations about how boys and girls should behave differ among cultures. On the one hand, a mainstream American teacher may promote equality of the sexes within her classroom while certain students may come from families where such equality is not valued (Cheng, 1987). For example, in many traditional Hispanic- and Asian-American families, little boys may have things done for them; they are fed, dressed and they may be allowed more freedom than girls outside the home at an earlier age. Girls, on the other hand, may care for younger siblings, clean, cook, and be given a great deal of responsibility within the home. Yet girls may be restricted in their activities outside the home. Although such patterns are still prevalent, traditional values concerning gender-determined roles are changing in many areas of the world, as both men and women question societal expectations and issues of power.

3. Cooperation versus Competition

American classrooms generally encourage competition and "doing better than others" is often proof of mastery and skill (Ramirez & Castañeda, 1974). Most games played within and outside of classrooms in the United States have a winner and a loser. Children learn early in life to compete in order to be first and win.

In contrast, competition is not valued in many cultures (Nelson & Kagan, 1972). In cooperatively-oriented cultures, working together is the mutual goal. "Winning and losing" either are not common concepts, or have different meanings than commonly held in the U.S. Teachers working with students from cooperatively-oriented cultures can encourage and reinforce traditional values by encouraging students to assist each other, while at the same time, instilling the necessary competitive skills to succeed in U.S. schools. Correspondingly, a classroom teacher can help majority-culture students maintain established competitive skills while they learn needed cooperative skills. Cooperative learning strategies have recently received more attention by American educators and the nature of classroom environments is changing because of this (Slavin, 1983; Johnson, Johnson, Holubec & Roy, 1984).

4. Family versus Individual

There is a great deal of emphasis on the individual in the American education system. "Individual potential," "individual achievement," "individual learning style," and "individual recognition for outstanding achievement" are all common educational terms. At the same time, many cultural groups value the family as the most important unit of society and do not focus on the worth of a single individual. For these groups, the emphasis on the individual is not understood. Students who come from cultures where it is group effort that is recognized and valued may not be easily motivated by individual recognition and rewards.

5. Fate versus Individual Responsibility

American society places a great emphasis on individual rights and responsibilities. The belief generally adhered to in this society is that the individual in fact, does have some control over both his environment and what happens to him or her. In contrast, students from cultures where there is a strong belief that the locus of control lies outside of the individual, hold firmly to the belief that outside factors (God, fate, natural forces) are largely responsible for what happens to them. For example, Spanish or Portuguese language background students, explaining in their native languages that they were late for the bus would say, "The bus left us," not "We missed the bus," or "I'll see you tomorrow, *if God wills it to be*".

The strong contrast of belief systems between fate (or greater force) versus individual responsibility creates serious problems for students and teachers in American schools. Students are often erroneously criticized when they fail to accept responsibility for their actions as expected by American teachers. Both teachers and students need to understand these conflicting belief systems and the serious implications they hold for teaching and learning.

THINK ABOUT IT...

CULTURALLY-TRANSMITTED PATTERNS

- degree to which accept/encourage emotional expression
- role performance/role expectations
- ideology/world-view
- cultural customs and practices (values, traditions, attitudes, beliefs)
- cognitive style
- behavioral characteristics
- language characteristics
- social networking practices
- religious beliefs and practices

Culture ↔ **Individual**

F. Hidden Messages

Activity

Instructions: Briefly list ten statements that define you. What values do these statements reflect?

1. ____________________

2. ____________________

3. ____________________

4. ____________________

5. ____________________

6. ____________________

7. ____________________

8. ____________________

9. ____________________

10. ____________________

III. ACCULTURATION

A. Background Information

The study of acculturation is a relatively recent phenomenon. In the mid-1930's it was formally defined by the Social Science Research Council as part of the domain of cultural anthropology, specifically *"those phenomena which result when groups of individuals having different cultures come into continuous, first-hand contact with subsequent changes in the original pattern of either or both groups"* (Redfield, Linton & Heskovits, 1936, p. 149). Garcia and Lega (1979) have defined acculturation as *"the acquisition of the values and behaviors of the majority culture by members of a minority (culture)."*

Descriptive features of this dynamic process include: the *level*, *course*, and *nature* of acculturation. These features will each be discussed in turn.

1. Level of Acculturation

Acculturation has been viewed as a two-*level* phenomenon; group or individual; with behavioral scientists of various disciplines concentrating their studies primarily at one level or the other.

Anthropologists and sociologists have emphasized acculturation as a group process and have studied its relationship to the socialization, social interaction and mobility of groups. Psychologists and psychiatrists, on the other hand, view acculturation as an intrapsychic process where perceptions, attitudes and cognitions of the *individual* are in a process of change.

Individuals in the process of acculturation differ not only in the degree to which they acculturate, but also in the level of stress that they experience in making the required behavioral adjustments. Level of acculturation has become an important characteristic to study in evaluating mental health status, cognitive and personality development and psychological and educational functioning of acculturating individuals (Olmedo, 1980, Padilla, 1980; Ramirez and Castañeda, 1974).

2. Course of Acculturation

Acculturation has been viewed as a continuum from totally unacculturated to highly acculturated (Olmedo, 1980; Padilla, 1980). According to this model, individual acculturation is a linear function of the amount of time, extent to which, and purposes for which a person has been exposed to the host culture (Berry, 1980). The rate at which the process takes place is a function of variables such as educational level, income level, and age and sex of the individual. It is affected, as well, by ethnic density of neighborhood in which the acculturating individual resides.

3. Nature of Acculturation

Current models propose acculturation as a dynamic, multifaceted process which occurs along a number of different planes (Cuellar, Harris & Jasso, 1980; Szapocznik & Kurtines, 1980), and is controlled by both extrinsic and intrinsic variables (Franco, 1983; Padilla, 1980; Szapocznik & Kurtines, 1980).

Two major aspects of the acculturation process, one internal and one external, have been consistently differentiated in the literature: the process as it takes place along an *overt behavioral dimension* of *functioning* (e.g., food, dress, language use) and the process as it takes place with respect to *internalized value orientations* (attitudes, values, self-identity) (Szapocznik & Kurtines, 1980). Often, overt behavioral changes are more rapid than internalized value orientation changes. Thus, a person's dress and food preferences may change noticeably, while attitudes and values may remain fixed.

The component variables that are most frequently identified as defining the *nature* of *acculturation for any individual,* fall into three major categories: *linguistic,* (language proficiency, preference and use), *psychological* (values, attitudes, knowledge, behavior), and *sociocultural* (educational, occupational status, mobility, family size and structure). When evaluating an individual's level of acculturation towards a host society, all aspects should be considered.

4. Relationship of Acculturation to Second Language Acquisition

The Reference Manual includes Barbara Murphy's review of the book Conversations of Miguel and Maria: How Children Learn a Second Language by Linda Ventriglia (TESOL Quarterly,17(1), 123-127,1983). In that book, Ventriglia defines three styles of participation in the new culture which children exhibit and talks about the relationship of these styles to second language acquisition. She calls the way in which and the degree to which children are motivated to become actively involved in learning the second language "Choosing the Way". For Ventriglia, individual differences, including personal, attitudinal and social factors, reflect the reality that language learning is a highly personal activity that is greatly influenced by children's motivational style towards the second language and culture.

Ventriglia defines three distinct motivational styles which reflect the preferred modes of participation in second-language learning. The first motivational style is labeled *Crystalizing*. Children manifesting this style choose to maintain their identity with the native language culture and to initially reject the second language. The second style is termed *Crossing-Over*. Children who adopt this style identify with the second culture in preference to the first. Even though the crossing-over style can be seen as having beneficial effects to second language acquisition, since it involves some level of self-rejection, it is harmful to the self-esteem and psychological functioning of the child. A third motivational style is named *Crisscrossing* by Ventriglia. This style is characterized by children who have harmonious identification with both first and second cultures.

Motivational styles are intimately tied with language use and development. For example, children who reveal the Crisscrossing motivational style are likely to practice both languages. Children who identify primarily with the second language group, Crossovers, are likely to adopt language use patterns that promote the replacement of the first language with the second. Crystalizers, who reject the second culture, will be resistant to learning the second language and will continue in communication patterns with peers who speak their native language. Level of acculturation, then, can be seen as having important consequences for second language learning, ethnic identity and personal adjustment.

5. The Positive Side of Acculturation

Adler (1975) has explored the positive side of the acculturation process. Because of the contact with another culture there is cultural learning, self-development and personal growth for any individual who makes a successful adjustment. Cross-cultural experiences are enriching and being culturally aware opens opportunities for new experiences and for greater self-awareness. Developing new skills and coping with the demands of the new culture can promote a feeling of mastery and achievement.

These beneficial aspects of the acculturation process usually occur when the acculturation process is *additive,* meaning that the person does not have to relinquish the home culture in favor of the host culture. When the individual is encouraged to divest him/herself of native cultural characteristics (assimilate), negative consequences often result. This subtractive process does not promote self development or personal growth as described by Adler.

B. Acculturation Stress, Acculturation Gaps and Cross-Cultural Conflicts

Think about the children and families you have worked with and share an experience that helps define or explain:

1. Cross-Cultural conflicts (resistance; misunderstanding):

2. Acculturation gaps (intergenerational differences in acculturation levels):

3. Acculturation stress (psychosomatic symptoms such as headaches, depression, homesickness; feelings of marginality):

4. THINK ABOUT IT...

ACCULTURATION STRESSORS/STRESS FACTORS

- acculturation stress/acculturation gaps
- housing/living conditions (less control, safety, privacy)
- cultural discontinuity
- conflicts of values
- language barriers
- cultural barriers
- identity crisis
- discrimination/marginality
- unemployment/underemployment
- changes in income level
- low education levels
- size of family
- marital disruption
- migration/reverse migration
- forced relocation
- social isolation; anonymity
- legal status
- negative effects of mass media (stereotypes)

5. THINK ABOUT IT...

MANIFESTATIONS OF ACCULTURATION STRESS

- breakdown of support networks
- homesickness
- culture shock/disorientation towards the host culture
- "despair of the future"
- feeling of loss of identity; mourning for lost ethnic identity
- transformation in roles of family members

C. THE PROCESS OF ACCULTURATION

Activity

Viewing The Acculturation Process from a Child's Perspective.

1. Read the excerpt provided about Gee Shui-Yee [pronounced: gee swee yee] from: Got Me A Story to Tell: A Multiethnic Book: Five Children Tell About Their Lives

2. Answer the following, providing evidence to support your response from the story:

    a. Was Shui-Yee encouraged to acculturate or assimilate?

    b. Is Shui-Yee a crystalizer, crisscrosser or has she crossed-over?

    c. Name some stressors in Shui-Yee's life imposed by the acculturation process:

    d. What were some cultural conflicts recognized by Shui-Yee?

3. What emotions did you experience as you read Shui-Yee's story?

My name is Camelia. I have black hair and brown eyes. I am Chinese. I live in San Francisco. This is a story about me.

My Chinese name
is Gee Shui Yee
This is how you
write it

朱
瑞
怡

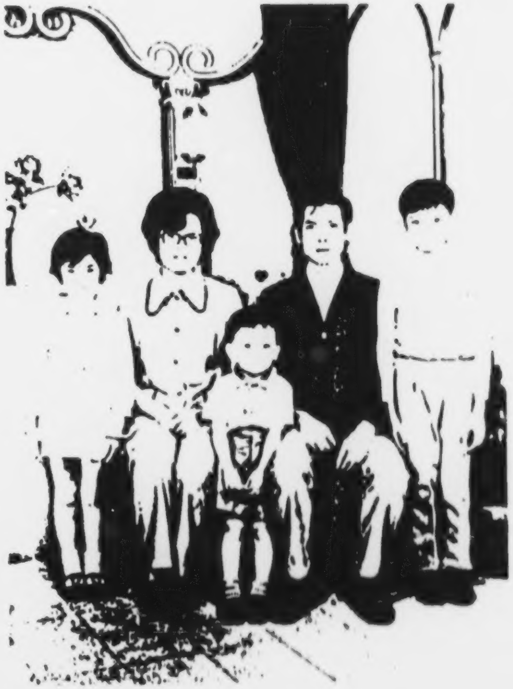
Gee is my first name in Chinese, but it is my last name in English. My father said that "Shui Yee" means "to be happy."

People think that I am a sweetheart. But I'm really not. Sometimes my heart is not so sweet and I get mad, like when my brothers stole my last piece of candy like robbers. I got really mad.

I'm tall enough to push the elevator buttons now I am eight years old But to Chinese people, I'm really nine That's because when Chinese babies are born, we already count them one year old

One day Mommy asked me if I wanted to come to America I said, "I don't know," because I didn't know what it was going to be like Then she told me that we were going to come here to find out

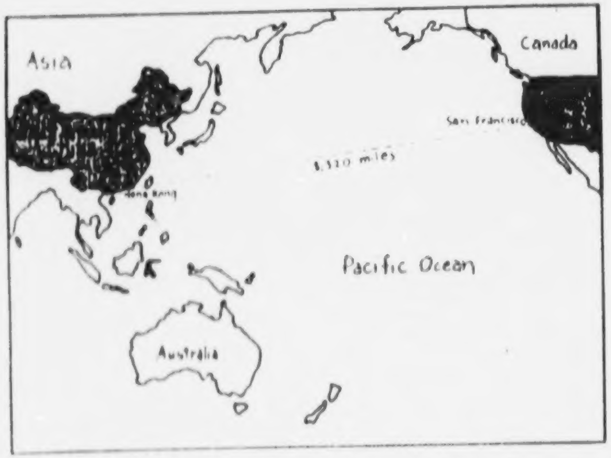
Bah Ba said, "Mommy and I want you to learn English and we want you to go to college when you are older Here in Hong Kong, schools cost too much money to send all of you children"



So we all came — Bah Ba, mommy, my two brothers and me We had to ride a train and two big airplanes to get here

I kept asking Bah Ba when we would get here I didn't know America was so far away

I never rode a plane before so I was a little scared Everything was just like ants on the ground We were high, high up, like we were in the heavens



I came from Hong Kong when I was very little - only 5½ years old. In Hong Kong almost everyone talks Chinese. There is a lot of water around it, just like San Francisco. But Hong Kong is very crowded. It has more people and buildings. It is so crowded that it is hard to drive your car. I know because Bah Ba told me. He drove an ambulance for sick people there.

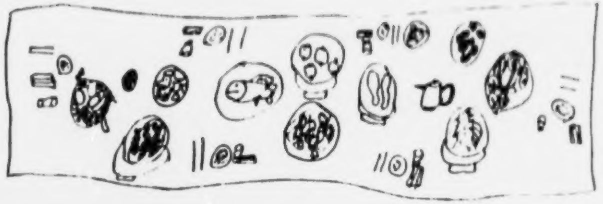
When I saw America, I was surprised to see so many people who had whiter skin and yellow hair. I couldn't understand people's words. It sounded funny to me. I held Mommy's hand very tight. I didn't want to be lost in America.

Goh Go—that's my older brother, Edmond—he kept looking for gold. He heard there was gold here. But he never found any yet.

We found an apartment in a big orange building. I saw lots of other families. But no Chinese family. I wanted to know who would be our friends.

On Saturdays Bah Ba and mommy go shopping in Chinatown. It's my favorite place. There are lots of little streets and lots of Chinese people there, just like in Hong Kong. I can hear them talk Chinese. I like that.

We have to take a bus there. Then we walk from this store to that store to look for the best vegetables and meats. It doesn't taste so good if it's not fresh. We can see live crabs and frogs and turtles at the fish store. I always want to stay to look at them. We see the roasted ducks and chickens hanging in the store windows. They smell so good that I get very hungry.



Sometimes we have a treat and have lunch in Chinatown. We eat *dim sum* and I love it. I like to eat the little fish cakes and the *bow* — the bread with meat inside. Everybody in the family eats with chopsticks, even Norman.

At home Bah Ba and Mommy cook Chinese and American food. Both are good. I wish I could have ice cream every day.

On Saturday we usually have *chow mein*. That's fried noodles. That's my favorite. Pig tails and shrimp are really good, too. Every night we have meat and vegetables and rice and soup. I eat until my stomach has no more room.

When we first came to America, I didn't have so much fun No one played with me I didn't think that other kids would be so mean to me Some of them said that I was stupid because I couldn't speak English like them They yelled, "Chinese girl! Chinese girl!" And then they ran away from me So just Ed and I played together Or I played by myself

Once near my apartment, two girls hid from me Then when i walked near them, they came out and pulled my hair They pulled it so hard that I cried I don't know why they wanted to hurt me like that After that Mommy didn't want me to play outside anymore

I wished I was back in Hong Kong with my Goong Goong and Poh Po and my cousins They were kind to me

One day I saw a girl all by herself, too I asked her if she wanted to play with me She wanted to and I was very happy Her name was Neomy and she was learning English, too Sometimes we had to talk with our hands to understand each other But we didn't need to talk too much to play together and to be friends

Later we asked Bridget and Angelita if they wanted to play with us They wanted to and we got more friends Now I can have fun because I have some friends I like it more in America

IV. DEVELOPMENTAL STAGES OF SECOND LANGUAGE ACQUISITION ACROSS SKILL AREAS

Many authors have identified **developmental stages** through which learners progress as they acquire oral language and literacy skills [listening (L), speaking (S), reading (R), and writing (W)]. Below is a representative list:

DEVELOPMENTAL STAGES

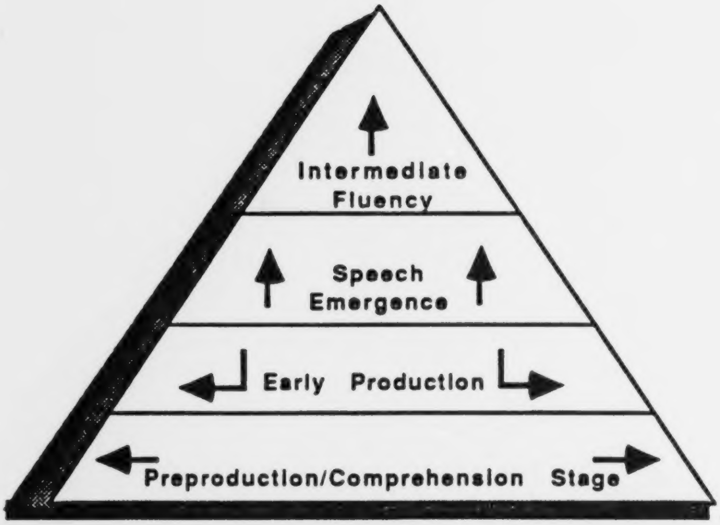
- Preparation for *L/S/R/W*
- Early *L/S/R/W*
- Emergent *L/S/R/W*
- Intermediate *L/S/R/W*
- Fluent *L/S/R/W*

By identifying the learner's current stage of development, teachers can provide more meaningful and appropriate instruction, as well as monitor the student's rate of growth through the various stages.

In the Reference Manual, a chart entitled Stages of Language Development is provided which illustrates the systems that various authors have developed to describe this natural sequence across skill areas. Basic references are given so that trainees who are unfamiliar with the notion of *developmental stages in language acquisition* can access the original sources.

A. Oral Language Acquisition

According to Terrell (1981), in oral language development, second language learners pass through four recognizable stages prior to achieving age-appropriate fluency (read graphic from bottom to top):


Intermediate Fluency
Speech Emergence
Early Production
Preproduction/Comprehension Stage

DEVELOPMENTAL STAGES OF LANGUAGE ACQUISITION

The four stages include:

1) a *pre-production* or *comprehension* stage in which the learner is engaged in active listening in the target language and observing language usage by its speakers, but the learner is not yet speaking;

2) an *early production* stage in which single words and short phrases are attempted;

3) a *speech emergence* stage in which *meanings* are communicated while language *forms* still demonstrate lack of full proficiency; and

4) *intermediate fluency* where both meaning and form are approaching age-appropriate levels, yet growth is still required in specific areas (e.g. phonology, lexicon, syntax, pragmatics, overall fluency).

In the first module we will discuss ways to **assess** the learner's stage of oral language acquisition. In the second module, we will discuss ways in which teachers can **plan instruction** to *match* to the learner's current linguistic stage.

In addition to knowing a child's **stage** of acquisition, service providers will need to have a more refined understanding of the specific **language skills** CLDE students have developed in their first and second languages. Skills in oral language might include: 1) listening comprehension, 2) language production or pronunciation (phonology), 3) grammar use (syntax), 4) vocabulary knowledge and use (lexicon), 5) fluency (rate, ease of production) and 6) appropriate language use (pragmatics).

1. Disability Effects on the Language Acquisition Process

Most of the literature on the second language acquisition process ignores the effects that a learner's disability would exert on the second language acquisition process.

This brief review is intended to remind special educators to integrate their knowledge of disability into their considerations of the second language acquisition process when the second language learners under consideration have identified disabilities.

If students have sensorial deficits this will directly affect their ability to obtain the required, undistorted input for acquisition.

If students are cognitively-limited or have memory limitations, their ability to construct and maintain essential connections between conceptual and linguistic representations will be impaired.

Students with speech and language difficulties in their first language will exhibit similar difficulties in the second language. The inability to process or construct meaning through language would severely impede the second language acquisition process.

Students with behavior disorders may find it hard to engage in second language acquisition activities or function effectively in second language environments long enough to get sufficient input. Their isolation in or rejection of the linguistic environment would impede their development in the target language.

Likewise, students with neurological or motor disorders may not have the necessary control to coordinate the production of the target language.

Each disability will have to be fully analyzed to understand how it might impede acquisition and what could be done instructionally to remove any existing barriers in order to insure the occurrence of acquisition.

2. Climate for Acquisition

Steven Krashen (1982) speaks of the conditions necessary for successful acquisition to occur.

These include:

1) *self-esteem*, where learners feel they are competent to undertake the learning process and all the risks to their self-confidence inherent in that undertaking,

2) *motivation*, where learners feel positively toward the second language and its speakers and see advantages in acquiring the language,

3) *low anxiety*, where learners lose their self-consciousness at their beginning production; are "off-the-defensive" (Stevick, 1976) and concentrate on the interactions so much they "forget" they are acquiring the new language,

4) *meaningful input*, where the focus is on the message, and the content is important, interesting and relevant to the learner's needs and,

5) *opportunity for learning*, where the learner is integrated into the second language environment, can use the target language and has access to second language (L_2) models and appropriate instruction.

3. Surface Proficiency versus Deep-Structure

Recently educators have become aware of the importance of distinguishing between two types of language proficiency acquired by second language learners in their new school environment.

One type of proficiency is *surface proficiency*. This is a functional, contextually-based proficiency which allows the speaker to interact with others regarding personal or everyday topics. Jim Cummins (1981) refers to this communicative proficiency as *Basic Interpersonal Communication Skills (BICS)*. Learners usually acquire this proficiency at age-appropriate levels in about 2 years, often sooner.

A second type of proficiency takes much longer to acquire and is referred to as *deep structure*. This type of proficiency is related to cognitively-demanding or academic language; in plain terms the language of teachers, textbooks and tests. Cummins (1981) refers to this as *Cognitive Academic Language Proficiency (CALP)* and suggests that unless students have fully-developed academic proficiencies in their native language which supports more rapid development in the second language of this type of proficiency, we should expect average children to take from 5-7 years to fully acquire this type of proficiency.

Cummins cautions that mistakes in the educational treatment of CLD children can be made if we assume that students are fully proficient when we see the communicative level of proficiency developed, and then attribute poor performance in handling lectures, textbooks and tests to "underlying learning problems" rather than to a continuing lack of academic language proficiency in English.

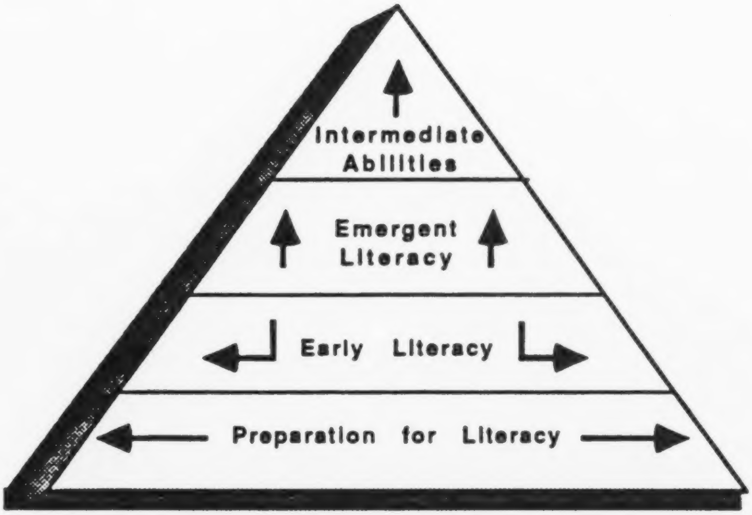
Therefore, it is extremely important to recognize that different types of proficiency require different types of support and time frames in order for acquisition to be attained.

B. Literacy Development in a Second Language

Just as with oral language, second language learners progress through a predictable sequence of developmental stages in their acquisition of reading, writing and spelling abilities in the target language.

1. Stages of Literacy Development

The chart which follows represents four stages learners pass through as they acquire age-appropriate literacy abilities in their second language.



STAGES OF LITERACY DEVELOPMENT

For example, in the development of writing, the following stages occur:

At the *preparation for writing** stage, learners would engage in symbolic production such as the production of pictures, drawings and reproductive verbal behavior (e.g. copying known words, tracing). At the *early performance** stage, learners would generate single words and phrases with a good deal or cross-lingual production evident ("filling-in", borrowing from the native language). At the *emergent* writing stage, more organization would be evident, although cross-lingual production would continue. Language use would improve and the mechanics and conventions of the target language would begin to appear. At the *intermediate* ability stage the learner would demonstrate a need to refine production skills and to learn more about the variety of outlets for their growing writing abilities (narrative and expository texts; prose and poetry).

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*Note: These stages only occur in L_2 writing development if no writing skills have been developed in any language (young child; older learner from oral language tradition)

2. Skills Development Across Stages

As was alluded to in the previous section on oral language development, a variety of skills are being acquired as the learner progresses through the four stages of literary development outlined. For writing, these skills fall into the general areas of: 1) organization, 2) vocabulary usage, 3) grammar or language use and 4) mechanics (punctuation, capitalization and spelling). Skills in reading might include: 1) decoding ability (sight word knowledge and phonetic analysis), 2) vocabulary comprehension, 3) fluency or reading rate, 4) extent of background knowledge and experience the reader brings to the text, 5) prediction, and 6) text-sampling skills.

By assessing **skills** development, the teacher can address the particular needs of students who are at the same **stage** of overall development.

3. Disability Effects

As with the previous section on oral language development, participants are reminded that most of what has been written on second language literacy acquisition concerns non-disabled individuals. As a result, it is important to consider the effects of sensory, memory, cognitive, neurological, motor, attention and behavior deficits on the acquisition of reading, writing and spelling in a second language.

4. Conducive Second Language Literacy Acquisition Environments

Optimal development in reading and writing will occur when the following conditions are met:

a) the focus of instruction is on meaning and the purposeful exchange of information between reader and writer,
b) the content of instruction is relevant to the learner's needs in and out of school,
c) the focus is on integrative approaches (whole text comprehension and production) rather than on synthetic approaches (isolated sub-skill development),
d) interlanguage forms are accepted at early stages,
e) appropriate feedback is given both in terms of the amount of feedback the learner can handle and the manner in which it is delivered,
f) plentiful opportunities are provided to engage in literacy activities in the second language,
g) encouragement is provided from peers and adults to sustain the learner's efforts.

The reader is referred to Cambourne, B. (1984). Language learning and literacy: Another way of looking at language learning In A. Butler & J. Turbill (Eds.), Towards a reading-writing classroom (pp. 5-9). Portsmouth: NH: Heinemann for additional information on this topic.

ACTIVITY

Simulating Entry Into A Second Language

As you watch the tape:

- Observe both the teacher and the students (verbal and non-verbal behavior)
- Notice the linguistic and cultural demands of the classroom and their "fit" with the learners.
- Notice the cognitive and social strategies the learners apply to understand the new language.
- Analyze the phases of the teacher's lesson and the teaching strategies employed.
- Consider the interpersonal dimensions in the classroom (affective responses, rapport, mutual understanding, and the non-verbal communication among students and between the teacher and her students).

Follow-up discussion questions:

- The tape presented adult learners entering a second language classroom environment. What differences would exist if the learners were children?
- What differences/similarities did you notice in the learners explanations of what mattered most to them in the instructional environment? (What helped/hindered their learning?)
- What cross-cultural differences in classroom structure and instructional practices do you think will create the greatest misunderstanding between this teacher and her students?

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MULTISYSTEM

SPECIALIZED INFORMAL ASSESSMENT

INTENT OF THE MODULE

This module is designed to assist service providers in conducting culturally and linguistically appropriate diagnostic assessments with exceptional language minority students. The areas treated in this module: language proficiency, academic abilities, and learning style/social skills were selected because having current information about these areas for culturally and linguistically diverse exceptional (CLDE) students is essential in planning appropriate intervention programs. An emphasis is placed on on-going, informal assessment techniques that can be easily implemented in the classroom and which extend and enrich information already gathered by the multidisciplinary team.

Informal Assessment/Introduction

MULTISYSTEM

I. AN ECOLOGICAL ASSESSMENT APPROACH IN VIEWING A CLDE CHILD'S BEHAVIOR

A. Rationale for Ecological Assessment

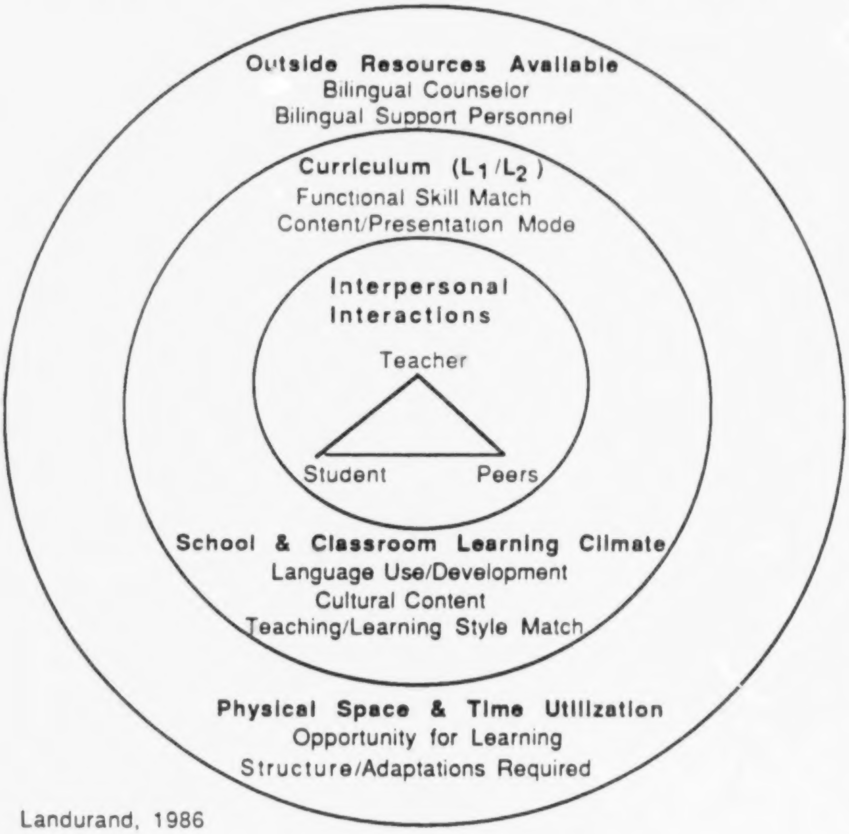
Because behaviors do not occur in a vacuum and every student is affected by and affects his/her environment, it is important that a student's performance, behavior and attitudes be understood in relation to other elements of the learning environment. It is critical that each CLDE student's performance be understood from both the point of view of the student's own culture as well as the interaction of the student in the context of the particular "school culture", rather than in isolation. The school setting, curriculum/instruction offered, and opportunity for development need to be evaluated as much as the pupil's ability to benefit from what is offered. For example, CLDE students may experience problems in school because of an inability to understand what behavior is expected of them, or because of the difficulties they experience in interpreting the behaviors of their teachers and peers in the educational environment. For CLDE students, cross-cultural interpretation of behavior in relation to the school environment is essential.

Numerous studies investigating the cause of individual student's school problems have concluded that educational environments play an important role and that intervention strategies need to be directed at the school environment as well as to the student (Ruben and Balow, 1971; Larsen, 1975). Furthermore, studies conducted on teacher expectations and their effects on student's academic performance have clearly concluded that not only have these expectations influenced the patterns of interactions between teachers and their pupils, but characteristics such as race, ethnicity, learning ability, gender, and handicapping condition have all strongly influenced teacher expectations and behavior toward students (Good and Brophy, 1973). For example, it has been demonstrated that low achieving students receive less praise and more criticism from teachers and are given less opportunity in the classroom to respond (Morrison and McIntyre, 1969; Good, 1970).

If the behavior of a CLDE student is to be comprehensively understood, the student needs to be carefully observed in several contexts, including the classroom, the playground, and the home environment. The interactions that occur between the students and the significant others within these environments need to be studied in order to derive a total picture of the student's performance as it occurs in different situational contexts.

For purposes of this module, an emphasis will be placed on viewing the student's behavior in relation to the classroom environment. An *ecological assessment* of the student within the classroom environment will include such variables as: 1) the nature of teacher-student interactions and the expectations of the teacher, 2) the appropriateness of the curriculum, 3) the use of physical space, 4) the actions and attitudes of peers, and 5) the current behavior of the CLDE student. The model on the next page describes major variables to be considered in conducting an ecological assessment of a CLDE student within the context of the classroom.

ECOLOGICAL ASSESSMENT MODEL FOR CLDE STUDENTS


Outside Resources Available
Bilingual Counselor
Bilingual Support Personnel
Curriculum (L1/L2)
Functional Skill Match
Content/Presentation Mode
Interpersonal Interactions
Teacher
Student
Peers
School & Classroom Learning Climate
Language Use/Development
Cultural Content
Teaching/Learning Style Match
Physical Space & Time Utilization
Opportunity for Learning
Structure/Adaptations Required

Landurand, 1986

B. Assessing Components of the Learning Environment

Two components of the *Ecological Assessment Model for CLDE Students* (Landurand, 1986) will be discussed to illustrate the process of conducting an ecological assessment.

1. School and Classroom Learning Climate

The school and classroom learning climate can promote or retard academic achievement. The amount of trust, support, respect, and encouragement that a student experiences in the academic environment is a key factor in his/her acquisition of knowledge and sense of self as a student. Particularly for CLDE students, a climate which respects cultural and linguistic diversity is necessary for effective learning and teaching to take place.

Although the assessment of the school environment will include a review of the general school climate, and the attitudes of the entire staff, evaluating the climate of each *individual* classroom is of critical importance in order to respond to the particular problems that a given student is experiencing.

A teacher can explore a student's feelings about the classroom by asking such open-ended questions as:

- What happens when you have an especially good day at school?
- What kind of activities do you enjoy/not enjoy?
- Do you feel comfortable when speaking in class?

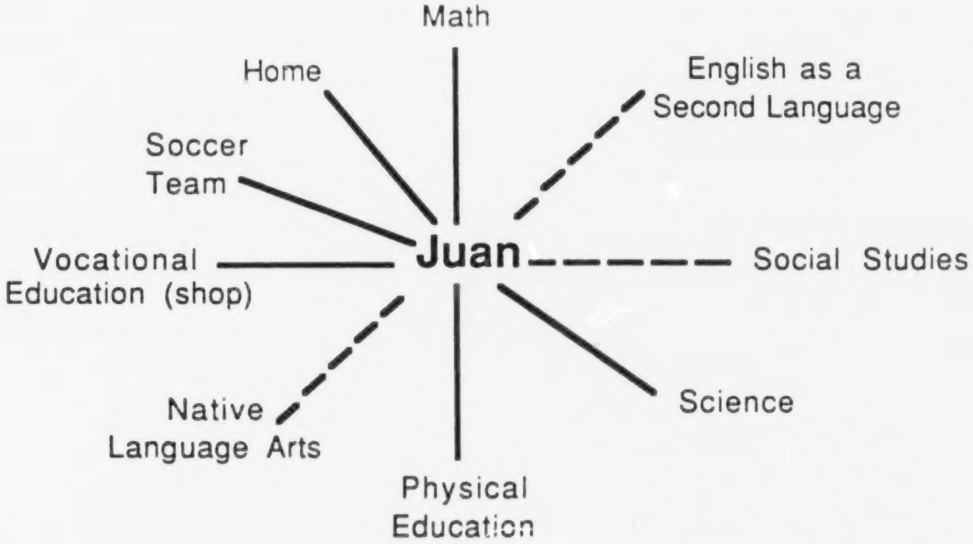
2. Teacher-Student Interaction Patterns

Both the quality and quantity of teacher-student interactions should be evaluated as they are key in effective teaching and learning. For CLDE students, not only is it important that the teacher understand the student's handicapping condition, cultural and linguistic characteristics and their effect on learning, but it is important that the teacher understand his/her *own* cultural framework and preferred patterns of interaction as well.

C. Ecological Mapping

The practice of estimating the "fit" of a student into various environmental components has been termed *ecological mapping*. The "mapping" of a student's ecology is an important step in conducting a holistic assessment. For any given student, the teacher must specify the major activities in which the student spends a part of his/her day; for example, ESL, Native Language Arts, Math, Social Studies, sports teams, and home activities.

For example, below is a preliminary map of Juan's ecology. The solid line connects him with settings in which he is having no difficulty. The dotted lines connect him with settings where he is experiencing a great deal of difficulty.


Math
Home
English as a Second Language
Soccer Team
Vocational Education (shop)
Juan
Social Studies
Native Language Arts
Science
Physical Education

As you can see, Juan appears to be experiencing difficulty in subjects requiring a great deal of language proficiency. More careful probing is needed in these settings. Both peer and teacher interactions in these settings need to be explored. For more detail on *ecological mapping* refer to Laten and Katz (1975).

D. Precautions in Using Ecological Assessment Techniques

An ecological assessment can be used to explore positive as well as negative elements of student functioning in the classroom or school. Ecological assessments can be effectively scheduled throughout the school year.

Assessment of the classroom climate and the student's self-concept ratings may be appropriately conducted at the beginning of the school year, while peer relationships and student-teacher interaction may be more effectively accomplished later in the school year to allow time for relationships to develop.

As a final precaution, it should be noted that assessments should be conducted with a **specific purpose** in mind and should always be conducted to collect information which will have a beneficial outcome for the student.

E. An Intercultural Perspective in Conducting Ecological Assessments

ACTIVITY

1. READ:

The term *ecology* or *ecosystem* considers the total life circumstances of the child. One of the most important parts of the child's ecology is the classroom environment, including the instructional program and the student and teacher interactions. It is often difficult for classroom teachers to understand the classroom behavior of a student, particularly if the student represents a cultural group different from the school's majority. Patterns of response which are commonplace and consistent from the perspective of the student's culture can appear to be inconsistent, perplexing, or behaviorally out-of-sync from the perspective of the classroom teacher who is unfamiliar with the culture of the child.

2. DO THE ACTIVITY

3. FOLLOW-UP QUESTIONS:

- What is the process by which misunderstanding occurs? Why is this frustrating?
- What is the "teacher observer's role" in eliciting student response?
- Why is it important to understand a student's cultural rules before conducting an observation of behavior?
- What variables need to be considered to ensure that accurate interpretation of the student's behavior occurs?
- Other than the classroom interaction, what other micro-communities involving the student could be a focus for observation?

Informal Assessment/Language Proficiency

MULTISYSTEM

LANGUAGE PROFICIENCY DIAGNOSIS

- Oral Language Assessment
- Literacy Assessment
  - Reading
  - Writing (Spelling)

ACTIVITY

Conduct Your Own Case Study

For this module, please select *one* CLDE student with whom you work. Assess this student using each of the informal assessment techniques to be introduced.

Child's Initials ______________________ Age __________

Language Background __________________________________

Ethnic Background ____________________________________

Born in the U.S. Yes [ ] No [ ]

If no, years in the U.S. ______________________________

How long have you known this student? __________________

Have you met the child's parent(s)/guardian(s)? Yes [ ] No [ ]

What else do you know about this pupil that might assist in understanding the assessment results: (e.g. only child; traumatic early history, etc.)

____

____

____

____

____

A. Language Proficiency Assessment

In order to capture all of the information required to plan appropriate language instruction, an individual student language profile is recommended. The profile should include all relevant information (in $L_1/L_2/L_3$...as applicable) including:

1) home language use,
2) language use at school,
3) stage of oral language development,
4) formal oral language assessment results,
5) stage of literacy development, (including reading, writing and spelling),
6) formal literacy assessment results and
7) attitudes of the child and his/her parent(s) towards each language

A sample profile follows which can be used during this module to record the information you collect about the language functioning of the student you have selected. You may wish to modify it later to better suit your particular program needs.

Please review it with your trainer.

B. SAMPLE INDIVIDUAL STUDENT PROFILE

CHILD'S INITIALS: ____________________ TEACHER: ____________ ROOM: _____

SCHOOL: ___________ YEAR: ______ GRADE LEVEL: ______ AGE: __________

Language Background: __________________ Ethnic Background: ________________

Born in U.S. Yes [ ] No [ ] If no, years in U.S. ____________

How long have you known this student? ____________________________

Have you met the child's parent(s)/guardian(s)? Yes [ ] No [ ]

Other noteworthy background information:

____

____

____

____

____

____

1. Home Language Use

1.____________ First language learned by student

2.____________ Language most frequently used by student at home.

3.____________ Language most frequently used by parents with student.

4.____________ Language most frequently used by adults with each other at home.

5.____________ Language most frequently used by student with siblings.

2. Language Proficiency Test Results (L/S/R/W)

Primary Language: ____________________________

Date	Technique/ Instrument	Area(s) Assessed	Results

Second Language: ____________________________

Date	Technique/ Instrument	Area(s) Assessed	Results

3. Stage of Language Development

(Mark Appropriate Box ☒)

Primary Language

	I Preparatory	II Early	III Emergent	IV Intermediate/ Transitional	V Age- Appropriate
Oral					
Reading					
Writing					
(Spelling)					

Second Language

	I Preparatory	II Early	III Emergent	IV Intermediate/ Transitional	V Age- Appropriate
Oral					
Reading					
Writing					
(Spelling)					

4. Observation of Relative Language Usage

Observer(s): ______________________ Dates of Observation: ________

Content	Only English	Mostly English	Equal Mixture	Mostly L_1	Only L_1
1. Informal w/ peers (Playground, cafeteria bus, etc.)					
2. Informal w/ adults (hallways, play areas, cafeteria, off-campus)					
3. Formal w/ peers (classroom, lab, library, etc.)					
4. Formal w/ adults (classroom, lab, office, etc.)					
5. With bilingual individuals (students, teachers, etc.)					

5. Norm-Referenced Test Results

English: ____________________

pre/post

Subject	Instrument	R. S.	%ile	G.E.	Date
Language					
Reading					
Math					

Other Language: ____________________

pre/post

Subject	Instrument	R. S.	%ile	G.E.	Date
Language					
Reading					
Math					

6. Parent and Student Attitude Toward:

Student	+	0	–
1. L$_1$ Usage			
2. L$_2$ Usage			
3. L$_1$ Literacy			
4. L$_2$ Literacy			
5. L$_1$ Culture			
6. L$_2$ Culture			
7. Bilingual Instruction			

Observer: ______________________ Date: ________

Parent(s)	+	0	–
1. L$_1$ Usage			
2. L$_2$ Usage			
3. L$_1$ Literacy			
4. L$_2$ Literacy			
5. L$_1$ Culture			
6. L$_2$ Culture			
7. Bilingual Instruction			

Observer: ______________________ Date: ________

7. Observation of Relative Literacy Activity

	N/A or D.K.	Only English	Only L_1	Mostly English	Mostly L_1	Some in Both	Not in Either
1. Child's parents/guardians read (functionally literate or beyond)							
2. Books, magazines, present in home							
3. Child read to by parents or other family members							
4. Formal reading instruction is provided							
5. Child reads for specific academic purposes							
6. Child reads for pleasure							

See the *Home Literacy Assessment Questionnaire* and the *Classroom Literacy Assessment Questionnaire* on the pages that follow which could be used to collect the information required above.

Home Literacy Questionnaire

1. Does the family receive a daily newspaper? If so, in what language?

2. To what magazines does the family subscribe? *(Note Language)*

3. Does the child receive any periodicals under his/her own name? *(name, language of periodical).*

4. How often per week is the child read to? In what language(s)?

5. How often per week does the child observe the parents reading? For what purposes (*functional* -- to find an apartment, cook, fix a car, *informational* -- stay current with local, state, national, international events; for *educational* purposes, or *recreational* -- pleasure reading). In what language(s)?

6 How often does the child read per week? For what purposes? In what language(s)?

7. Approximately how many books does the family own? [10, 50, 100, 200, 300; language(s)?]

8. How many books does the child own? [language(s)?]

9. How often and for what purposes do the parents write? (*personal* correspondence for *business* for *educational* or *professional* purposes, *incidental* [e.g., notes, lists and reminders. Note language(s)]

10. How often and for what purposes does the child write? [Note language(s)]

11. If the child reads regularly for pleasure, what are the child's current interests?

12. Does the child need assistance with printing or handwriting? *(Is writing fluid, legible?)*
Other comments:

Note: Do not ask any questions you believe are too personal or would offend parents in any way.

CLASSROOM LITERACY QUESTIONNAIRE

1. Describe the print available in the classroom: (newspapers, magazines, newsletters, readers, textbooks, stories, novels, poetry, etc.):

2. How many minutes per day is the student read to? [in which language(s)?]

3. How many minutes per day does the student read? (Explain *if silent or aloud). [Note language]*

4. Is reading being formally taught? By what method(s)? In what language(s)?

5. For what purposes does the student read in the classroom? (*personal, informational, educational, for pleasure)*

6. Does the class use the library? For what purposes? How often?

7. Describe the writing activities in which the student engages (copying, completing sentences, answering questions, writing journals, essays, reports, etc.)

8. How many minutes per day does the student write?

9. Is writing being formally taught? By what method? In what language(s)?

10. What is the student's attitude toward reading? Toward writing? (*positive, confident, eager, negative, self-conscious, tentative, etc.*)

11. How do you, as the child's instructor, view the child as a reader? *(very capable, able, satisfactory, not performing well but trying, not able, not trying, etc.)*

12. How do you, as the child's instructor, view the child as a writer?
    Other comments:

Note: Do not ask any questions you believe are too personal or would offend the classroom teacher(s) in any way.

8. **Student observation/interview** (re: interests, interactions, motivation, attitudes)

Interviewer: ______________________________ **Date**: ______

Observations/Reactions:

See the sample classroom observation checklist provided entitled **Strang's Pupil Reading Observation Checklist** on the pages that follow which could be used to collect information such as that requested above.

Teacher Observation as a Diagnostic Technique

CHECKLIST RECORD OF CLASSROOM OBSERVATION ON PUPIL'S READING*

Name____________ Grade ________ Teacher ____________

Directions: Tally significant observations day by day. Space at bottom of each situation can be used for noting specific errors, interpretations, general impressions, evidence of progress, and recommendations.

I. When Giving Oral Reports

Vocabulary

____ Rich
____ Words mispronounced
____ Meager
____ Meaningful

Speech

____ Distinct, clear enunciation
____ Inaudible
____ Stuttering
____ Incorrect sounds
____ Monotonous
____ Expressive

Language Patterns

____ Complete sentences
____ Simple sentences
____ Complex sentences
____ Good organization
____ Repetition of ideas
____ Interpretation of ideas
____ Imaginative insights

Interests

____ Reads at home
____ Uses library
____ Has own library
____ Special collections
____ Sports
____ Trips with parents
____ Science
____ Art
____ Music
____ Shop

Reactions of Peers

____ Interested
____ Uninterested
____ Sympathetic
____ Friendly
____ Critical
____ Hostile

Emotional Factors

____ Poised
____ Relaxed and happy
____ Tense and anxious
____ Self-confident
____ Shy and embarrassed
____ Antagonistic
____ Unhappy

II. Oral Reading and Group Instruction Periods

Word Recognition Skills

____ Basic sight vocabulary
____ Tries to sound words
____ Tries to pronounce by syllables
____ Tries to analyze structure
____ Substitutes another word

Comprehension

____ Answers factual questions correctly
____ Gives main ideas
____ Tells whole story accurately
____ Draws conclusions

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____ Makes wild guesses
____ Reverses letters
____ Reverses words
____ Reverses phrases
____ Uses context clues

____ Makes generalizations
____ Follows directions
____ Gives sensible reasons on thought questions
____ Gives fantastic, irrelevant reasons on thought questions
____ Relates reading to experiences
____ Unable to relate reading and experiences
____ Expression in reading

Peer Relationships

____ Gets along well with girls
____ Gets along well with boys
____ Respects others
____ Disturbs others
____ Works alone only
____ Works well with one other child

Location of Information

____ Uses index
____ Uses table of contents
____ Uses dictionary
____ Uses maps
____ Uses diagrams
____ Uses encyclopedia

III. Dramatization of Stories

Reading Skills

____ Reads with expression
____ Interprets behavior of character accurately
____ Shows little understanding of character
____ Interprets sequence accurately
____ Reads too slowly
____ Reads too rapidly

Personal Development

____ Poised
____ Relates character and story to own experience
____ Interest evident
____ No interest
____ Shy, ill at ease
Insight____

IV. Silent Reading Situation

(Free-Choice Reading or Library Time)

Location of Material

____ Finds suitable book quickly

Attitude Toward Reading

____ Engrossed in book
____ Enjoyment evident

Reading Level

____ Primer
____ First

____ Follows suggestion of other children
____ Has teacher help
____ Uses library classification
____ Uses table of contents

____ Independent
____ Dependent upon others
____ Uninterested, resists or avoids reading

____ Second
____ Third
____ Fourth
____ Fifth
____ Sixth

Physical Factors

____ Holds book up
____ Holds books close to face
____ Lip movement
____ Squints
____ Blinks eyes
____ Eyes red or watery
____ Complaints of headache
____ Complaints of dizziness
____ Bends over book
____ Fatigue posture

Interest

____ Animals
____ People
____ Science
____ History
____ Adventure
____ Fairy tales
____ Sports
____ Art
____ Music
____ Cars, planes, trucks, boats
____ Rockets
____ Armed services

Location of Material

____ Takes useful notes
____ Selects too advanced books
____ Unable to find any books of interest to him

Attitude Toward Reading

____ Easily distracted
____ Others

Reading Level

____ Seventh
____ Others

Insight ____

V. Listening to Story Read Aloud

Interest

____ Listens attentively
____ Listens part time
____ Easily distracted
____ Restless and preoccupied

Comprehension

____ Evident appreciation of story—talks about it
____ Asks related questions
____ Responds to humor and excitement
____ Answers factual questions
____ Tells main ideas
____ Tells whole story accurately
____ Relates ideas to own experiences

9. Parent Interview (re: activities, observed language usage, attitudes)

by: ______________________________ **Date:** __________

Observations/Reactions:

See *Home Language Assessment* form on pages which follow as a model form used to collect information like that requested above.

HOME LANGUAGE ASSESSMENT

1. Number of years the family has been in the U.S. ____

2. What is the birthplace of the parents (guardians)?

   Mother: ______________________________
   Father: ______________________________

3. In what language did each parent (guardian) receive most of his/her education?

   Mother: ______________________________
   Father: ______________________________

4 How many years of schooling did each parent (guardian) complete?

   Mother: ______________________________
   Father: ______________________________

5. What language do the parents (guardians) speak at home most of the time?

   Mother: ______________________________
   Father: ______________________________

6. What language does the student speak with his/her parents (guardians)?

   Mother: ______________________________
   Father: ______________________________

7. What language does the student most often speak with brothers and sisters. (List each sibling and specify)

Sibling	Language

8. What language does the student most often speak with his/her friends or playmates? ______________________________

9. In which language are television and radio programs most often received in the home? ________________________

10. In which language is most print media (books, magazines, newspapers) received in the home? ___________________

11. In which language do the parents read aloud most often, tell stories or sing songs?

12. How many years of schooling has the student received in a language other than English? _______________________

Note: Do not ask any questions you believe are too personal or would offend the parents in any way.

10. Instructional goals by language area:

Oral language (e.g., "to provide appropriate speech emergence activities *[stage]* so that the student can advance to the intermediate fluency level while concentrating on vocabulary development and listening comprehension "*[skills]*.):

Primary Language:

Second language:

Literacy (e.g., "to provide appropriate preparatory activities *[stage]* in reading and writing to advance the student to an early literacy stage while concentrating on prediction skills, enjoyment of books, awareness of the conventions of print, drawing as a form of written communication and letter formation" *[skills]*.):

Primary language:

Second languge:

Source: Based on a form presented in ***Individual learning programs for limited English proficient students***. California State Department of Education: Sacramento, CA, 1981. Revised by Nancy Cloud, December, 1986.

C. Evaluating Language

When evaluating a student's linguistic functioning, there are two basic types of information that are essential to include: the **language development stage** of the learner and the **language skills** the learner has developed in the native and second languages.

Many authors have identified **developmental stages** learners pass through as they acquire oral language and literacy skills (reading, writing and spelling)[1]. By identifying the learner's current stage of development, teachers can provide more meaningful and appropriate instruction, as well as monitor the student's rate of growth through the various stages.

The second type of information service providers need is a more refined understanding of the specific **language skills** CLDE students have developed in the first and second languages. In this unit, we will introduce the following informal techniques for assessing student's language skills (L_1/L_2):

1) collecting and evaluating oral language samples (to assess pronunciation, grammar, vocabulary, fluency and comprehension),
2) constructing and administering informal reading inventories (to assess decoding and reading comprehension skills), and
3) collecting and analyzing writing samples (to assess vocabulary, organization, grammar, language mechanics, and spelling).

In keeping with our philosophy that assessment should account for the *context* in which the student is acquiring language, we will also demonstrate ways to assess the **classroom environment** and **home language environment** to understand more about the opportunities and resources available to the student.

For example, without knowing how much opportunity a student has to *use* English, we can not interpret *rate* of growth in English. If English is slow in developing and the student has had maximum opportunities to use it, this slow rate of growth is very significant. However, if the student has had minimal or no opportunities to use

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[1] See chart provided in the reference manual entitled Stages of Language Development.

English, the slow rate of growth is understandable. The teacher's response in each case would be very different.

1. Assessing Language Proficiency

SMALL GROUP ACTIVITY

Collect wallet-size photographs or snapshots which class members carry with them. Distribute group members with pictures so that each small group has one or more pictures. (Make sure the owner of the photograph stays with the picture!)

1) What does the picture convey about the subject to those in the group who **do not** know the subject?

2) Based on the group's response, does the owner feel the picture captured the total personality of the subject? Why?

3) Does the owner feel the picture is a good representation of the subject? Why?

4) What else was learned about the subject that couldn't be learned from the picture alone?

5) In what ways are photographs limited?

6) What must be done to overcome these limitations?

7) Now, think about conducting a language proficiency assessment. How are language assessment results like a snapshot? (Brainstorm as many ways as you can that they are alike!)

D. COLLECTING AND EVALUATING LANGUAGE SAMPLES

1. Effective Methods of Eliciting Language

Source: Permission to use this material has been granted by Else Hamayan, Illinois Resource Center, Des Plaines, IL 60018.

In this section we will suggest three methods commonly used to collect language samples. These methods can be used in the primary or the second language.

a. Collect a spontaneous sample of language:

A natural language sample can be collected by engaging the student in purposeful conversation. What might be a long and painful "breaking the ice" period followed by long periods of silence can be avoided by:

•Use of toys:	Encourage the child to talk for the various toys (Miss Piggy, action figure, etc.)
•Use of manipulatives and objects:	Often it can be much easier to elicit language in the presence of objects.
•Use of pictures:	Pictures are helpful in generating topics for discussion. The Brigance Inventory of Basic Skills-Spanish Edition has such a subtest: *Responds to a Picture* (B-2).
•Use of a peer:	A student may find it much easier to talk to a peer than to an adult examiner.

b. Use the story retelling procedure:

Select an age-appropriate story to read to the student.

Prior to reading the story, say: "I will read you a story and show you pictures that go with it. Listen carefully because you're going to have to repeat the story the way you heard it."

If the story is too long, divide it into two or three paragraphs. The story can be read to the student once all the way through, and then each paragraph separately. On the second reading, at the end of each paragraph, hand the student the pictures that correspond to that paragraph and ask him to retell the story the way he had heard it.

c. Use the sentence repetition procedure:

In this procedure sentences increase in length and grammatical complexity. The student repeats the sentences given until the point that the student can not accurately reproduce them. The BRIGANCE® Inventory of Basic Skills-Spanish Edition has a subtest of this type: *Sentence Memory*.

Typically the following instructions are given to students:
"I am going to read you some sentences. Listen very carefully. After each sentence, repeat it as accurately as you can." (For young students, this method can be presented in a "Simon-Says" procedure.)

In the excerpt which follows we will highlight the use of the story retelling procedure with LEP students.

HOW TO ASSESS ENGLISH LANGUAGE PROFICIENCY

Oral Language

For purposes of initial identification of language minority students who have a limited proficiency in English, a quick and informal assessment of general oral communication ability is sufficient. This may be accomplished by two methods: 1) rating an oral language sample obtained from the student and 2) administering an informal oral language test. By following the suggestions given in this section of the handbook, a general indication of students' language ability can be obtained. A more detailed analysis of oral language ability, for diagnostic and prescriptive purposes, can be done later.

Oral language sample

Oral interview (spontaneous language)

The type of language sample that is most representative of the student's oral language ability can be obtained from **spontaneous language.** All attempts should be made to get the student to talk spontaneously. This can be accomplished by interviewing the student, asking him questions of general interest. This type of interview need not last longer than 10 minutes, especially if the student does not seem to be inhibited. It is sometimes difficult to elicit spontaneous language, especially from students who are non-proficient speakers. These students tend to be shy and self-conscious about the way they speak English and may be reluctant to say much when left to their own resources.

Suggestions for eliciting spontaneous language from an oral interview

1. Put the student at ease.
2. Introduce yourself and let the student introduce himself.
3. Explain the purpose of the task and why you are taking notes; this puts the student at ease and creates a less threatening environment.
4. Start by asking questions that require simple answers—for example, "How old are you?" and "What's your favorite subject in school?"
5. Proceed by asking the student more open-ended questions — for example, "Do you remember your first day in the school? Tell me about it." "Do you watch television? Tell me about your favorite program." "What's your favorite food? Tell me why you like it."
6. It is always a good idea to have objects and toys (puppets are a good choice) at the interview. Engage the student in an activity and elicit speech related to that activity.

Story-retelling

In addition to the oral interview, it may be necessary to use a more structured way of eliciting language — that is, by giving the student a story-retelling task, where a short story is read to the student and he is then asked to retell it.

Suggestions for the story retelling task:

1. Select a story that is appropriate for the student's age (see Appendix C for story sheets for different levels).
2. Have ready as many story sheets as there are students to be tested.
3. Make the student feel comfortable and explain the purpose of the task and the reason you are taking notes.
4. Give the following directions as clearly as possible: "I am going to read you a story. Pay attention and try to remember as much of the story as you can. When I finish, I want you to tell me the story. Ready?"
5. Read the story in its entirety at a normal conversational pace.
6. Say to the student: "Now, tell me as much of the story as you can remember."
7. Guide the student's story-retelling by giving probes — that is, questions that facilitate a student's response, such as, "and then what happened?"
8. You may jot down on the story sheet any notes that may help you subsequently evaluate the student's general oral proficiency.

Scoring an oral language sample from an oral interview or story-retelling task

To avoid inhibiting the student, the scoring should not take place while the testing is in progress. Begin the scoring procedures immediately after the student has left the room where the interview and the story retelling task took place. The student's oral language proficiency

Note From Assessment of language minority students: A handbook for educators (p. 7) by E. V. Hamayan, J. A. Kwiat, & R. Perlman, 1855 Mt. Prospect Road, Des Plaines, IL 60018: Illinois Resource Center. Copyright © 1985 by the Illinois Resource Center. Reprinted by permission.

is rated for five general language areas; four of those areas (pronunciation and accent, grammatical accuracy, vocabulary, and fluency) represent expressive language, and one (listening comprehension) represents receptive language. A composite of all five areas yields the oral language score. These five areas can be described as follows:

1. **Pronunciation and accent:** Pronunciation should be assessed according to whether or not it impedes meaningful communication.
2. **Grammatical accuracy:** When assessing grammatical accuracy, remember that children's language in and of itself deviates from adult language. When rating a child's second language, the deviations **beyond** typical errors that children normally make should form the basis of that rating. To check the student's level of grammatical control, the interviewer should attempt to stimulate a discussion of topics that require or suggest the use of various verb moods, tenses, and persons beyond the simple narrative present and the first person forms.
3. **Vocabulary:** The extent of the student's spoken vocabulary needs to be evaluated within the context of the interview or the story-retelling task. The vocabulary of language minority students should be compared to that of their native English-speaking peers. Thus, the same comment made in the introduction of grammatical accuracy, which relates to the language of young children, applies to vocabulary.
4. **Fluency:** Fluency does not refer here to the absolute speed of delivery, since native speakers of any language often show wide variation in this area. Fluency, for purposes of this assessment, refers to the overall smoothness, continuity, and naturalness of the student's speech, as opposed to pauses for rephrasing sentences, groping for words, and general hesitance.
5. **Listening comprehension:** It is difficult to evaluate listening comprehension in a highly objective manner using a conversational or a story-retelling technique. If a student is able to carry out a rather sophisticated conversation on the basis of spoken leads and comments given by the interviewer or is able to recall most components of a story, it is reasonably certain that the student is at a level in listening comprehension proficiency comparable to the level of a child who is a native speaker of that language. It is, however, possible that the student's listening proficiency as such could be quite high, but that limitations in his ability to speak the language prevent him from either responding readily to questions or conversational leads or reproducing components of a story which he understood perfectly well. It is not uncommon for listening skills of language minority students to far exceed their speaking skills; therefore, it is recommended that interviewers assume that students' listening proficiency is at least on a level with their performance in the expressive areas.

Guidelines for rating areas of language proficiency:

Each of the areas of language proficiency described above are rated on a six-point scale ranging from 1 (no proficiency) to 6 (native-like proficiency). The descriptions of proficiency (see Appendix D) are adapted from the Foreign Service Institute Oral Interview Technique developed by the Educational Testing Service (1970). To maximize reliability, testers should complete the ratings by adhering to the descriptions of proficiency within each language area. After some practice with this procedure, the tester may in some cases want to give a score that is in between two of the descriptions. For example, if a student's performance in grammar is about midway between descriptions 3 and 4, a score between the two might be given. The rating sheet in Appendix E may be used for recording each student's scores.

For each of the five language areas (pronunciation, grammar, vocabulary, fluency, and comprehension), choose the proficiency descriptions — from 1 to 6 — that best represent the performance of the student. Then, to determine a composite score representing the student's general performance in an oral communication setting, use the weighting table below (Table 3). In the weighting table, each of the five language areas is numerically weighted according to its relative importance in determining language proficiency. Thus, scores on accent, an area which is generally seen as not contributing much to communicative effectiveness, are given lower weights than scores on grammar or vocabulary, areas which affect oral communication significantly. The weighted total score is then converted to an absolute rating ranging from 0+ (minimal proficiency) to 4+ (native-like proficiency; see Table 4).

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Table 3

Weighting Table

Proficiency Description	Rating 1	2	3	4	5	6
Accent	0	1	2	2	3	4
Grammar	6	12	18	24	30	36
Vocabulary	4	8	12	16	20	24
Fluency	2	4	6	8	10	12
Comprehension	4	8	12	15	19	23

Table 4

Conversion Table for Determining Oral Language Proficiency Level

Total Score*	Level
16-25	0+
26-32	1
33-42	1+
43-52	2
53-62	2+
63-72	3
73-82	3+
83-92	4
93-99	4+

*From Weighting Table

Interpretation of the oral proficiency level score[1] :

The lowest score of 0+ represents students who have practically no proficiency in English. The highest score of 4+ represents students who have native-like proficiency in English. For purposes of identifying LEP students, students who score at level 3 or below should be considered in need of language instruction and some type of support in the content areas.

(Note that the type of language elicited in an interview or a story-retelling task pertains to social interpersonal communication; information about a student's ability to handle more abstract and more cognitively demanding situations must be sought -- possibly from tasks involving literacy skills).

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[1] Assessment of language minority students: A handbook for educators (p. 9) by E. V. Hamayan, J. A. Kwiat and R. Perlman. Des Plaines, IL: Illinois Resource Center. Copyright © 1985 by the Illinois Resource Center. Reprinted by permission.

Appendix C

STORY RETELLING SHEETS

THE GREEN MONSTER[1]
(Grades K-1)

Once upon a time there was a green monster who liked to eat apples. One day he ate what looked like an apple. He didn't like what he ate, and he said, "This isn't a real apple; it's a plastic apple!"

Poor monster felt very sick. All of his friends came to visit him. They asked, "How are you?" "I don't feel very well," he answered. "We're sorry the plastic apple made you sick," they said, "But look, we brought you some presents," The red monster gave him some strawberries, the yellow monster gave him some bananas, and the orange monster gave him carrots. The green monster said, "Thank you. I think I feel a little better now. And I'm never going to eat plastic apples again."

---

[1] Adapted from: *Language Assessment Scales.* 1981. San Rafael, CA: Linguametrics Group.

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Appendix C (Cont.)

THE FOUR WISHES[1]
(Grades 2-3)

Once upon a time there was a little girl named Lola who liked to make wishes. One winter day when Lola was making a snowman she said, "Oh, I wish it were always winter." Her mother wrote that wish down in a little book. Then spring came, and Lola went to pick strawberries with her brother. "I wish it were always spring," she said. And her mother wrote it down. In the summer, Lola went on a picnic with her friend Carmen. "Gee, I wish it were always summer." Her mother wrote down her wish. Fall came and Lola played in the red and brown leaves. "Oh, I wish it were always fall." Then her mother took out the wish book and wrote it down. She showed Lola she had wished the same thing about all four seasons. Lola laughed and said, "I guess I got all of my wishes; it's always either winter, spring, summer or fall."

---

[1] Adapted from: *Language Assessment Scales.* 1981. San Rafael, CA: Linguametrics Group.

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Appendix C (Cont.)

THE CROW AND THE PITCHER[1]

(Grades 4-6)

In a forest far away lived a big black crow who was always thirsty. One day he flew around looking for some water to drink. He flew over a farm, looked down and saw what looked like a pitcher of water. But when the crow flew down he was very disappointed. The water was not very deep. It was at the bottom of the pitcher and he couldn't reach it. "Now how can I get that water," the crow thought. "I'll have to think of something," he said. The crow thought and thought. Finally he thought of a wonderful plan. He started dropping small stones into the pitcher. Each time he dropped in a stone, the water came up a little higher in the pitcher. When it reached the top, the smart crow could drink the water. After he had plenty of water, he flew off to look for something to eat, because now he was very hungry.

[1] Adapted from: *Language Assessment Scales.* 1981. San Rafael, CA: Linguametrics Group.

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Appendix C (Cont.)

THE FOX AND THE CROW[1]

(Grades 7-8)

A long time ago in a distant land there lived a very smart red fox who was always very hungry. One day the fox went to look for food, and soon he saw a big, black crow sitting up in a tall tree. Immediately, he saw that she had a big piece of ham in her beak. "I wonder how I can get that ham," said the fox to himself. "Good morning," he said. The crow didn't answer him. "How are you today?" The crow didn't answer. "You sure look nice today. Say, could you tell me how to get downtown?" The crow opened her beak and started to talk. The ham fell out of the crow's beak. The fox grabbed it and ate it. The crow got very mad. She jumped up and down, flapped her wings and flew away. The fox then walked away, looking for someone else to trick.

[1] Adapted from: *Language Assessment Scales*. 1981. San Rafael, CA: Linguametrics Group.

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Appendix C (Cont.)

THE GLASSES[1]
(Grades 9-12)

Helen's eyes were not very good. She had worn glasses ever since she was eight years old. When she was seventeen, she started to go out with a boy she liked. She never wore her glasses when she was with him. When he came to the door to take her out, she took her glasses off, and when she came home again and he left, she put them on.

One day her mother said to her, "But Helen, why don't you wear your glasses when you are with Jim? He takes you to beautiful places in his car, but you don't see anything." "Well, Mother," said Helen, "I look better to Jim when I'm not wearing my glasses, and he looks better to me, too!"

One night Jim had to work and he couldn't make his date with Helen. He knew that she really couldn't see him without her glasses - so he sent his brother to take her out. Helen went out with Jim's brother and had a great time. She never knew that her date wasn't really with Jim.

---

[1] Adapted from: Hill, L.A. 1974. *Elementary Stories for Reproduction*. London: Oxford University Press.

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Appendix D: LANGUAGE PROFICIENCY DESCRIPTIONS[1]

Accent

1. Pronunciation frequently unintelligible.
2. Frequent gross errors and a very heavy accent making understanding difficult, requiring frequent repetition.
3. "Foreign" accent that requires concentrated listening; mispronunciation leading to occasional misunderstanding and apparent errors in grammar or vocabulary.
4. Marked "foreign" accent and occasional mispronunciations which do not interfere with understanding.
5. No conspicuous mispronunciations for a child of that age level but would not be taken for a native speaker.
6. Native pronunciation, with no trace of "foreign" accent.

Grammar

1. Grammar almost entirely inaccurate except in common phrases.
2. Constant errors showing control of very few major patterns, relative to a native speaker of that age level, and frequently preventing communication.
3. Frequent errors showing lack of control of some major patterns and causing more misunderstanding than would be expected for a speaker of that age level.
4. Occasional errors showing imperfect control of some patterns but no weakness that causes misunderstanding.
5. Few errors, with no patterns of failure, but still lacking full control over grammar that is expected of that age.
6. No more than two errors during the interview, other than those typical of a child the same age who is a native speaker of that language.

Vocabulary

1. Vocabulary inadequate for even the simplest conversation.
2. Vocabulary limited to basic personal and survival areas (time, food, family, etc.).
3. Choice of words sometimes more inaccurate than would be expected of a native speaker of the same age, and limitations of vocabulary that prevent continuous conversation.
4. Vocabulary adequate to carry on basic conversation but some circumlocutions are present.
5. Vocabulary almost as broad and precise as would be expected of a native speaker of the same age.
6. Vocabulary apparently as accurate and extensive as that of a native speaker of the same age.

Fluency

1. Speech so halting and fragmentary that conversation is virtually impossible.
2. Speech very slow and uneven except for short or routine sentences.
3. Speech more hesitant and jerky than a native speakers of the same age; sentences left uncompleted.
4. Speech occasionally hesitant, with some unevenness caused by rephrasing and groping for words, more so than would be typical for that age level.
5. Speech effortless and smooth, but perceptibly non-native in speed and evenness.
6. Speech on all topics that are of interest to that age level as effortless and smooth as a native speaker.

Comprehension

1. Understands too little for the simplest type of conversations.
2. Understands only slow, very simple speech on concrete topics; requires more repetition and rephrasing than would be expected of a native speaker of the same age.
3. Understand careful, somewhat simplified speech directed to him, with considerable repetition and rephrasing.
4. Understand adult speech quite well directed to him, but still requires more repetition or rephrasing than a native speaker of the same age.
5. Understands everything in conversation except for colloquial or low-frequency items, or exceptionally rapid or slurred speech.
6. Understand everything in both formal and colloquial speech except of a native speakers of the same age.

---

[1] Assessment of language minority students: A handbook for educators, (p 26) by E. V. Hamayan, J. A. Kwiat and R. Perlman, 1985, Des Plaines, IL 60018: Illinois Resource Center, Copyright © 1985 by the Illinois Resource Center. Reprinted by permission.

Appendix E

ORAL LANGUAGE PROFICIENCY RATING SHEET

Name:______________________________

Date:______________________________

Interviewer:______________________________

District:______________________________

Accent	1	2	3	4	5	6
Grammar	1	2	3	4	5	6
Vocabulary	1	2	3	4	5	6
Fluency	1	2	3	4	5	6
Comprehension	1	2	3	4	5	6

Table 3

Weighting Table

Proficiency Description	Rating					
	1	2	3	4	5	6
Accent	0	1	2	2	3	4
Grammar	6	12	18	24	30	36
Vocabulary	4	8	12	16	20	24
Fluency	2	4	6	8	10	12
Comprehension	4	8	12	15	19	23

Table 4

Conversion Table for Determining Oral Language Proficiency Level

Total Score*	Level
16-25	0+
26-32	1
33-42	1+
43-52	2
53-62	2+
63-72	3
73-82	3+
83-92	4
93-99	4+

*From Weighting Table

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Total Weighted Score____________

Oral Proficiency Level____________

Comments

As you evaluate **Sally's** story retelling sample, circle your ratings here, then transfer your ratings to the next page.

Appendix D: LANGUAGE PROFICIENCY DESCRIPTIONS[1]

Accent

1. Pronunciation frequently unintelligible.
2. Frequent gross errors and a very heavy accent making understanding difficult, requiring frequent repetition.
3. "Foreign" accent that requires concentrated listening; mispronunciation leading to occasional misunderstanding and apparent errors in grammar or vocabulary.
4. Marked "foreign" accent and occasional mispronunciations which do not interfere with understanding.
5. No conspicuous mispronunciations for a child of that age level but would not be taken for a native speaker.
6. Native pronunciation, with no trace of "foreign" accent.

Grammar

1. Grammar almost entirely inaccurate except in common phrases.
2. Constant errors showing control of very few major patterns, relative to a native speaker of that age level, and frequently preventing communication.
3. Frequent errors showing lack of control of some major patterns and causing more misunderstanding than would be expected for a speaker of that age level.
4. Occasional errors showing imperfect control of some patterns but no weakness that causes misunderstanding.
5. Few errors, with no patterns of failure, but still lacking full control over grammar that is expected of that age.
6. No more than two errors during the interview, other than those typical of a child the same age who is a native speaker of that language.

Vocabulary

1. Vocabulary inadequate for even the simplest conversation.
2. Vocabulary limited to basic personal and survival areas (time, food, family, etc.).
3. Choice of words sometimes more inaccurate than would be expected of a native speaker of the same age, and limitations of vocabulary that prevent continuous conversation.
4. Vocabulary adequate to carry on basic conversation but some circumlocutions are present.
5. Vocabulary almost as broad and precise as would be expected of a native speaker of the same age.
6. Vocabulary apparently as accurate and extensive as that of a native speaker of the same age.

Fluency

1. Speech so halting and fragmentary that conversation is virtually impossible.
2. Speech very slow and uneven except for short or routine sentences.
3. Speech more hesitant and jerky than a native speakers of the same age; sentences left uncompleted.
4. Speech occasionally hesitant, with some unevenness caused by rephrasing and groping for words, more so than would be typical for that age level.
5. Speech effortless and smooth, but perceptibly non-native in speed and evenness.
6. Speech on all topics that are of interest to that age level as effortless and smooth as a native speaker.

Comprehension

1. Understands too little for the simplest type of conversations.
2. Understands only slow, very simple speech on concrete topics; requires more repetition and rephrasing than would be expected of a native speaker of the same age.
3. Understand careful, somewhat simplified speech directed to him, with considerable repetition and rephrasing.
4. Understand adult speech quite well directed t o him, but still requires more repetition or rephrasing than a native speaker of the same age.
5. Understands everything in conversation except for colloquial or low-frequency items, or exceptionally rapid or slurred speech.
6. Understand everything in both formal and colloquial speech except of a native speakers of the same age.

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Appendix E

ORAL LANGUAGE PROFICIENCY RATING SHEET

Name: Sally

Date:________________________

Interviewer:________________________

District:________________________

Accent	1	2	3	4	5	6
Grammar	1	2	3	4	5	6
Vocabulary	1	2	3	4	5	6
Fluency	1	2	3	4	5	6
Comprehension	1	2	3	4	5	6

Table 3

Weighting Table

Proficiency Description	Rating 1	2	3	4	5	6
Accent	0	1	2	2	3	4
Grammar	6	12	18	24	30	36
Vocabulary	4	8	12	16	20	24
Fluency	2	4	6	8	10	12
Comprehension	4	8	12	15	19	23

Table 4

Conversion Table for Determining Oral Language Proficiency Level

Total Score*	Level
16-25	0+
26-32	1
33-42	1+
43-52	2
53-62	2+
63-72	3
73-82	3+
83-92	4
93-99	4+

*From Weighting Table

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Total Weighted Score____________

Oral Proficiency Level____________

Comments

As you evaluate **Geraline's** story retelling sample, circle your ratings here, then transfer your ratings to the next page.

Appendix D: LANGUAGE PROFICIENCY DESCRIPTIONS[1]

Accent

1. Pronunciation frequently unintelligible.
2. Frequent gross errors and a very heavy accent making understanding difficult, requiring frequent repetition.
3. "Foreign" accent that requires concentrated listening; mispronunciation leading to occasional misunderstanding and apparent errors in grammar or vocabulary.
4. Marked "foreign" accent and occasional mispronunciations which do not interfere with understanding.
5. No conspicuous mispronunciations for a child of that age level but would not be taken for a native speaker.
6. Native pronunciation, with no trace of "foreign" accent.

Grammar

1. Grammar almost entirely inaccurate except in common phrases.
2. Constant errors showing control of very few major patterns, relative to a native speaker of that age level, and frequently preventing communication.
3. Frequent errors showing lack of control of some major patterns and causing more misunderstanding than would be expected for a speaker of that age level.
4. Occasional errors showing imperfect control of some patterns but no weakness that causes misunderstanding.
5. Few errors, with no patterns of failure, but still lacking full control over grammar that is expected of that age.
6. No more than two errors during the interview, other than those typical of a child the same age who is a native speaker of that language.

Vocabulary

1. Vocabulary inadequate for even the simplest conversation.
2. Vocabulary limited to basic personal and survival areas (time, food, family, etc.).
3. Choice of words sometimes more inaccurate than would be expected of a native speaker of the same age, and limitations of vocabulary that prevent continuous conversation.
4. Vocabulary adequate to carry on basic conversation but some circumlocutions are present.
5. Vocabulary almost as broad and precise as would be expected of a native speaker of the same age.
6. Vocabulary apparently as accurate and extensive as that of a native speaker of the same age.

Fluency

1. Speech so halting and fragmentary that conversation is virtually impossible.
2. Speech very slow and uneven except for short or routine sentences.
3. Speech more hesitant and jerky than a native speakers of the same age; sentences left uncompleted.
4. Speech occasionally hesitant, with some unevenness caused by rephrasing and groping for words, more so than would be typical for that age level.
5. Speech effortless and smooth, but perceptibly non-native in speed and evenness.
6. Speech on all topics that are of interest to that age level as effortless and smooth as a native speaker.

Comprehension

1. Understands too little for the simplest type of conversations.
2. Understands only slow, very simple speech on concrete topics; requires more repetition and rephrasing than would bé expected of a native speaker of the same age.
3. Understand careful, somewhat simplified speech directed to him, with considerable repetition and rephrasing.
4. Understand adult speech quite well directed t o him, but still requires more repetition or rephrasing than a native speaker of the same age.
5. Understands everything in conversation except for colloquial or low-frequency items, or exceptionally rapid or slurred speech.
6. Understand everything in both formal and colloquial speech except of a native speakers of the same age.

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Appendix E

ORAL LANGUAGE PROFICIENCY RATING SHEET

Name: Geraline

Date:

Interviewer:

District:

Accent	1	2	3	4	5	6
Grammar	1	2	3	4	5	6
Vocabulary	1	2	3	4	5	6
Fluency	1	2	3	4	5	6
Comprehension	1	2	3	4	5	6

Table 3

Weighting Table

Proficiency Description	Rating					
	1	2	3	4	5	6
Accent	0	1	2	2	3	4
Grammar	6	12	18	24	30	36
Vocabulary	4	8	12	16	20	24
Fluency	2	4	6	8	10	12
Comprehension	4	8	12	15	19	23

Table 4

Conversion Table for Determining Oral Language Proficiency Level

Total Score*	Level
16-25	0+
26-32	1
33-42	1+
43-52	2
53-62	2+
63-72	3
73-82	3+
83-92	4
93-99	4+

*From Weighting Table

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Total Weighted Score

Oral Proficiency Level

Comments

As you evaluate **Albert's** story retelling sample, circle your ratings here, then transfer your ratings to the next page.

Appendix D: LANGUAGE PROFICIENCY DESCRIPTIONS[1]

Accent

1. Pronunciation frequently unintelligible.
2. Frequent gross errors and a very heavy accent making understanding difficult, requiring frequent repetition.
3. "Foreign" accent that requires concentrated listening; mispronunciation leading to occasional misunderstanding and apparent errors in grammar or vocabulary.
4. Marked "foreign" accent and occasional mispronunciations which do not interfere with understanding.
5. No conspicuous mispronunciations for a child of that age level but would not be taken for a native speaker.
6. Native pronunciation, with no trace of "foreign" accent.

Grammar

1. Grammar almost entirely inaccurate except in common phrases.
2. Constant errors showing control of very few major patterns, relative to a native speaker of that age level, and frequently preventing communication.
3. Frequent errors showing lack of control of some major patterns and causing more misunderstanding than would be expected for a speaker of that age level.
4. Occasional errors showing imperfect control of some patterns but no weakness that causes misunderstanding.
5. Few errors, with no patterns of failure, but still lacking full control over grammar that is expected of that age.
6. No more than two errors during the interview, other than those typical of a child the same age who is a native speaker of that language.

Vocabulary

1. Vocabulary inadequate for even the simplest conversation.
2. Vocabulary limited to basic personal and survival areas (time, food, family, etc.).
3. Choice of words sometimes more inaccurate than would be expected of a native speaker of the same age, and limitations of vocabulary that prevent continuous conversation.
4. Vocabulary adequate to carry on basic conversation but some circumlocutions are present.
5. Vocabulary almost as broad and precise as would be expected of a native speaker of the same age.
6. Vocabulary apparently as accurate and extensive as that of a native speaker of the same age.

Fluency

1. Speech so halting and fragmentary that conversation is virtually impossible.
2. Speech very slow and uneven except for short or routine sentences.
3. Speech more hesitant and jerky than a native speakers of the same age; sentences left uncompleted.
4. Speech occasionally hesitant, with some unevenness caused by rephrasing and groping for words, more so than would be typical for that age level.
5. Speech effortless and smooth, but perceptibly non-native in speed and evenness.
6. Speech on all topics that are of interest to that age level as effortless and smooth as a native speaker.

Comprehension

1. Understands too little for the simplest type of conversations.
2. Understands only slow, very simple speech on concrete topics; requires more repetition and rephrasing than would be expected of a native speaker of the same age.
3. Understand careful, somewhat simplified speech directed to him, with considerable repetition and rephrasing.
4. Understand adult speech quite well directed t o him, but still requires more repetition or rephrasing than a native speaker of the same age.
5. Understands everything in conversation except for colloquial or low-frequency items, or exceptionally rapid or slurred speech.
6. Understand everything in both formal and colloquial speech except of a native speakers of the same age.

---

[1] Assessment of language minority students: A handbook for educators, (p 26) by E. V. Hamayan, J. A. Kwiat and R. Perlman, 1985, Des Plaines, IL: Ilinois Resource Center, Copyright © 1985 by the Illinois Resource Center. Reprinted by permission.

Appendix E

ORAL LANGUAGE PROFICIENCY RATING SHEET

Name: Albert

Date:

Interviewer:

District:

Accent	1	2	3	4	5	6
Grammar	1	2	3	4	5	6
Vocabulary	1	2	3	4	5	6
Fluency	1	2	3	4	5	6
Comprehension	1	2	3	4	5	6

Table 3

Weighting Table

Proficiency Description	Rating					
	1	2	3	4	5	6
Accent	0	1	2	2	3	4
Grammar	6	12	18	24	30	36
Vocabulary	4	8	12	16	20	24
Fluency	2	4	6	8	10	12
Comprehension	4	8	12	15	19	23

Table 4

Conversion Table for Determining Oral Language Proficiency Level

Total Score*	Level
16-25	0+
26-32	1
33-42	1+
43-52	2
53-62	2+
63-72	3
73-82	3+
83-92	4
93-99	4+

*From Weighting Table

Note: From Assessment of language minority students: A handbook for educators. (pp. 9, 27) by E. V. Hamayan, J. A. Kwiat and R. Perlman, 1985, Des Plaines, IL: Illinois Resource Center, Copyright © 1985 by the Illinois Resource Center Reprinted by permission.

Total Weighted Score

Oral Proficiency Level

Comments

E. CONSTRUCTING AND ADMINISTERING INFORMAL READING INVENTORIES

USE OF INFORMAL READING INVENTORIES
COMPILED BY DOLORES REDMOND

Oral reading tests, either formal or informal, provide needed evidence of how the learner accomplishes the reading act. The chief purpose for administering an informal reading inventory are:

To determine levels of reading
To reveal strengths and weaknesses
To make the learner aware of his/her achievement
To evaluate progress periodically

DESIGN OF AN INFORMAL INVENTORY

1. List words from preprimer to sixth grade. Twenty to twenty-five appear to constitute an adequate sample.

2. Select passages from a basal series. Passages must be of sufficient length so that comprehension questions can be asked.

3. Questions should cover grasp of vocabulary, acquisition of factual information and drawing and supporting influences.

4. Make a child's copy and a teacher's copy. The teacher's copy is used to record the number of errors per running word.

ADMINISTRATION OF READING INVENTORY AS DESCRIBED BY RUTH STRANG IN *DIAGNOSTIC TEACHING OF READING.*

1. Have a brief talk with the student in a friendly way.
2. Give short tests of printed vocabulary to identify the ability to pronounce printed words and auditory perception, then use the reading paragraph.

Example[1]: **PRIMER**

1. again
2. day
3. fun
4. new
5. of
6. some
7. thank
8. must
9. two
10. take

Example[2]: **PRIMER**

The dog saw the little girl.
The girl did not know the dog.
She ran away from it.
The girl went into her house.
It had come to play.

[1,2] Examples are taken from the BRIGANCE® Assessment of Basic Skills-Spanish Edition-Subtest D-1, Form A

a. Give the pupil the first paragraph card
b. Ask him to read it orally.
c. Record errors as s/he reads.
d. Ask comprehension questions; write answers as s/he gives them.
e. To obtain supplementary information, ask the child to read the paragraph silently, then orally again. Record changes in comprehension and increase or decrease in errors.
f. Continue with the next paragraph until frustration level is reached.
g. Read aloud to the student other paragraphs beginning at his/her frustration level; ask comprehension questions.
h. Record the errors made in each paragraph; record the number and percentage of errors in word recognition and comprehension. Summarize results using a check list, profile or description of student's specific abilities or bad habits.

A CODE FOR MARKING READING ERRORS:

A WORD SUPPLIED: Circle the words-- the man laughed.

MISPRONOUNCIATIONS: Wavy underline (∿∿∿∿∿) all mispronounced words and mark above the pronunciation given.

OMISSIONS: Draw a line through any word or word part omitted.

SUBSTITUTIONS: Write a substitution for a word or word part above the word for which the substitution was made.

ADDITIONS: Use a caret to show where the word was added. Ex.: The
^ red rubber ball rolled away.

REPETITIONS: Draw a line under any word that is repeated. Ex.: The birds sang well.

DEFINITION OF TERMS FROM *INFORMAL READING INVENTORIES*
BY MARJORIE SEDDEN JOHNSON AND ROY A. KRESS

1. The individual informal reading inventory is a clinical device designed to reveal extensive information about a child's reading strengths and needs as well as to establish the levels at which s/he can function independently and with no instruction.

2. The independent reading level is the level at which a child can function on his/her own and do a virtually perfect job in handling the material.

3. The instructional reading level is the level at which the child should be and can profitably be instructed.

4. The frustration reading level is the level at which the child becomes completely unable to handle the reading material.

5. The hearing comprehension (capacity) level is the highest level at which the child can satisfactorily understand materials when they are read to him/her.

EVALUATIONS BY INFORMAL READING INVENTORIES REVEAL:

1. The child's competence in dealing with reading materials at successive levels of difficulty.

2 The use of context clues and deficiencies in word analysis techniques as well as tendencies to reverse forms, to repeat, to omit and to substitute.

3. Weaknesses as substitutions, omissions, repetitions, and insertions of letters or words.

4. Errors that show the need for instruction in certain vowels, consonants, blends, digraphs, or an adequate sight vocabulary.

5. Silent reading could reveal questionable habits such as head movement, lip movements, subvocalization, finger pointing, and a low rate of reading.

6. Comprehension checks reveal the child's ability to select the main idea, recall details, make inferences, and understand vocabulary.

ADVANTAGES OF INFORMAL READING INVENTORIES

1. Inexpensive, available, direct and immediate use.
2. Has a definite readability.
3. Makes the learner aware of his/her progress.
4. Can appraise interest, persistence, ability to concentrate and attitude toward reading.

LIMITATIONS OF INFORMAL READING INVENTORIES

1. Proficiency of the examiner.
2. The disposition of the child being tested.
3. The suitability of the materials used.
4. The fluctuation of an individual's reading levels.
5. The disagreement regarding the enumeration and counting of oral reading errors among different examiners.

ACTIVITY:

CONSTRUCTING AND ADMINISTERING AN INFORMAL READING INVENTORY

Depending on the results of earlier testing, and using the procedures described by Dolores Redmond in the previous pages, construct and administer an informal reading inventory *in the appropriate language* to your target child.

1) What basal series did you use as the source of your paragraphs (Publisher, date, level(s))?

2) What is the child's instructional level (grade equivalent)?

3) What is the child's frustration level?

4) What are the child's reading strengths?

5) What are the child's reading weaknesses?

Other comments: ____

____

____

____

____

____

____

____

F. COLLECTING AND ANALYZING WRITING SAMPLES

1. The Writing Sample

Source: Hamayan, E. V., Kwiat, J. A. & Perlman, R. (1985). The identification and assessment of language minority students: A handbook for educators (pp. 11; 61). Arlington Heights, IL: Illinois Resource Center.

A useful informal assessment method to assess a student's writing ability is the writing sample. Obtaining a short writing sample and rating it, is very similar to obtaining and rating an oral language sample. The purpose of assessing this language area is to evaluate the student's ability to communicate in writing in a coherent way. However, a writing sample is **not** a valid assessment instrument for students *below third or fourth grade*, since all aspects cannot be adequately assessed. In such cases, observation of early writing performance may be used instead. [See Section G: *A Rating Technique for Observing Early Writing Progress* by Marie M. Clay which follows].

2. Guidelines for Eliciting a Writing Sample

Have lined, blank sheets of paper and a pencil ready for each student. Pencils without erasers should preferably be used and the students should be encouraged to scratch out but not to erase. (The "corrected" passages can be a rich source of information about the strategies that the student is using in the second language!)

3. Instructions for Obtaining the Writing Sample

A. Read the following instructions:

a. Write your name at the top of your paper

b. Choose **ONE** of the following topics for writing one or two paragraphs:
  - My first day in school this year
  - The most interesting person I have ever met
  - Something frightening that happened to me

c. Plan your ideas for five minutes

d. Develop your ideas in one or two paragraphs

e. Review the paragraph(s) you wrote and correct any mistakes you may have made

f. You have 15/30 minutes

B. Allow about 15 minutes for the younger students and 30 minutes for the older ones. Administer individually or in small groups.

4. Scoring and Interpreting a Writing Sample

The writing sample obtained can be analyzed according to the following criteria that measure the following general characteristics of writing (adapted from Jacobs et al., 1981):

1. *Organization:* Relative to the writing of a native speaker of English of the same age, how smoothly do the thoughts in the written passage flow? This characteristic may be applied with more validity to the writing of older students. Eliminate this criterion of organization from the evaluation of samples from younger students.

ORGANIZATION	**EXCELLENT TO VERY GOOD:** fluent expression • ideas clearly stated/supported • succinct • well-organized • logical sequencing • cohesive **GOOD TO AVERAGE:** somewhat choppy • loosely organized but main ideas stand out • limited support • logical but incomplete sequencing **FAIR TO POOR:** non-fluent • ideas confused or disconnected • lacks logical sequencing and development **VERY POOR:** does not communicate • no organization • OR not enough to evaluate	Excellent Very Good Good Average Fair Poor Very Poor	6 5 4 3 2 1 0

2. Vocabulary: Relative to the writing of a native speaker of English of the same age, how adequate is the range of words used in the passage?

VOCABULARY	**EXCELLENT TO VERY GOOD:** sophisticated range • effective word/idiom choice and usage • word form mastery • appropriate register **GOOD TO AVERAGE:** adequate range • occasional errors of word/idiom form, choice, usage *but meaning not obscured* **FAIR TO POOR:** limited range • frequent errors of word/idiom form, choice, usage • *meaning confused or obscured* **VERY POOR:** essentially translation • little knowledge of English vocabulary, idioms, word form • OR not enough to evaluate	Excellent Very Good Good Average Fair Poor Very Poor	6 5 4 3 2 1 0

Note: From Assessment of language minority students: A handbook for educators (p. 62) by E. V. Hamayan, J. A. Kwiat and R. Perlman, Des Plaines, IL: Illinois Resource Center, Copyright © 1985 by the Illinois Resource Center. Reprinted by permission.

3. Grammar: Relative to the writing of a native speaker of English of the same age, how adequate are the grammatical structures used by the student?

LANGUAGE USE

EXCELLENT TO VERY GOOD: effective complex constructions • few errors of agreement, tense, number, word order/function, articles, pronouns, prepositions

GOOD TO AVERAGE: effective but simple constructions • minor problems in complex constructions • several errors of agreement, tense, number, word order/function, articles, pronouns, prepositions *but meaning seldom obscured*

FAIR TO POOR: major problems in simple/complex constructions • frequent errors of negation, agreement, tense, number, word order/function, articles, pronouns, prepositions and/or fragments, run-ons, deletions • *meaning confused or obscured*

VERY POOR: virtually no mastery of sentence construction rules • dominated by errors • does not communicate • OR not enough to evaluate

Excellent	6
Very Good	5
Good	4
Average	3
Fair	2
Poor	1
Very Poor	0

4. Mechanics: Relative to the writing of a native speaker of English of the same age, how well has the student mastered spelling, punctuation, and capitalization?

MECHANICS

EXCELLENT TO VERY GOOD: demonstrates mastery of conventions • few errors of spelling, punctuation, capitalization, paragraphing

GOOD TO AVERAGE: occasional errors of spelling, punctuation, capitalization, paragraphing *but meaning not obscured*

FAIR TO POOR: frequent errors of spelling, punctuation, capitalization, paragraphing • poor handwriting • *meaning confused or obscured*

VERY POOR: no mastery of conventions • dominated by errors of spelling, punctuation, capitalization, paragraphing • handwriting illegible • OR not enough to evaluate

Excellent	6
Very Good	5
Good	4
Average	3
Fair	2
Poor	1
Very Poor	0

Students whose writing samples receive the two lowest ratings (fair to poor and very poor) in any of the four dimensions will be limited in their ability to write in English.

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5. EVALUATING A WRITING SAMPLE

ACTIVITY

A. Using the sample provided below of an eighth grade student, score according to the criteria given on the previous pages (101-102).

Hi My Name is EduardO I am level two
And I'm in eight grade I do not know your name
My favorite Sport is seccer be couse I like
to run and kikt the boll to my Frynes and my
favorite subjet is Sience and English
because I like to de expiriments and lurn
about Natural Stuf. And I like english because
I want to lurn this lenguage so I can cuminicate with
more peope and have more frynes
and my favorit foods are Pizza!!!

Organization ____________
Vocabulary ____________
Language Use ____________
Mechanics ____________

B. Overall, what *stage* do you believe this writing to represent? (Preparation for writing, early performance, emergent writing, or intermediate ability).

C. What aspects would you target to work on with this student?

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

Let's Practice

On the next three pages you will find language samples of eighth-grade students. The first and third are Hispanic, the second is Haitian. Niftali and Johnny are in self-contained special education classes for the mildly handicapped. Alberto is in general education classes. Rate the samples holistically according to the criteria presented in the section Scoring and Interpreting a Writing Sample. (pp. 101-102).

[illegible] Niftali
[illegible] 11/17/88
"My Purto Rican Family"

In my family we Are all ~~Porican~~ Porican.
my mother is from Ponce there she was
born And raised. my father is from huncothere
he was born and rased. Then they came to
New York And then we wore born All my
brother were bern in the same hospital. But I
was born in a nother hospital. It is so brootifu
were I was born it is the nices hospital of all.
Me And my brothes And sistr, Are Porican And
American. But we Are more American then
Porican. My mother And father Porican.

	Very Poor	Poor	Fair	Average	Good	Very Good	Excellent
Organization	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
Vocabulary	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
Language Use	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
Mechanics	0	1	2	3	4	5	6

Johnny
8A-4

CIS 148
11-7-83

Jounal

I Said to my brothe [illegible] Let
make my Mothe and my Farther
A happy said O.K Let make
predant For my mother and
Father said think you and
Mother said think you to

	Very Poor	Poor	Fair	Average	Good	Very Good	Excellent
Organization	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
Vocabulary	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
Language Use	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
Mechanics	0	1	2	3	4	5	6

Alberto

Año 7
P-6

11/8/84

my Favorite sport is football soocer

me gusta porque es saludable y bueno para que el Cuerpo no se ponga gordo tambien para Nuestras piernas Sean mas agiles y puedamos Correr mas Fuerte y Cuando ya creas que estas bien Entrenado porque para Estar En un Equipo de football tienes que Echar muchas ganas a aprender como se pasa al que tiene uno adelante y porque es vonito

Alberto

	Very Poor	Poor	Fair	Average	Good	Very Good	Excellent
Organization	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
Vocabulary	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
Language Use	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
Mechanics	0	1	2	3	4	5	6

G. A RATING TECHNIQUE FOR OBSERVING EARLY WRITING PROGRESS

A RATING TECHNIQUE FOR OBSERVING EARLY WRITING PROGRESS

(Source: Clay, M.M. (1975). What did I write? Beginning writing behavior. (pp. 66-67). Portsmouth, NH: Heinemann.)

To estimate the level of a young child's written expression during the early writing stages take three samples of his/her written work on consecutive days, or over a period. The child's behavior must develop in each of three areas and s/he should receive a rating for each aspect of the writing task. This is an arbitrary scale and should be taken only as a rough guide to a child's instructional needs.

LANGUAGE LEVEL: Record the number of the highest level of linguistic organization used by the child.

1. Alphabetic (letters only)
2. Word (any recognizable word)
3. Word Group (any two word phrase)
4. Sentence (any simple sentence)
5. Punctuated story (of two or more sentences)
6. Paragraphed story (two themes)

MESSAGE QUALITY: Record the number below for the best description of the child's sample.

1. S/he has a concept of symbols/signs (uses letters, invents letters, uses punctuation).
2. S/he has a concept that a message is to be conveyed (i.e., s/he tells you a message but when s/he "reads" his/her sample, what s/he has written is not that message).
3. A message is copied, and s/he knows more or less what that message says.
4. Repetitive, independent use of sentence patterns like "here is a tree, here is a flower, etc."
5. Attempts to record own ideas, mostly independently.
6. Successful composition.

DIRECTIONAL PRINCIPLES: Record the number of the highest rating for which there is no error in the sample of the child's writing.

1. No evidence of directional knowledge.

2. Part of the directional pattern is known:
   Either Start top left
   Or Move left to right
   Or Return down left
3. Reversal of the directional pattern (right to left and/or return down right). A sample with one lapse should be rated at this level.
4. Correct directional pattern.
5. Correct directional pattern and spaces between words.
6. Extensive text without any difficulties of arrangement and spacing of text.

Note also:

- The child's use of drawings as a part of early communication efforts.
- Evidence of the child's developing awareness of mechanics (handwriting, conventional spelling, punctuation, capitalization, page set-up, spacing, etc.)

Informal Assessment/Academic Skills

MULTISYSTEM

A. Educational Background Assessment

In order to plan academic instruction (reading, mathematics and content areas such as science and social studies), the service provider will require additional information concerning the *functional abilities* of each CLDE student.

In this section, we will discuss helpful ways of discovering a student's skills for each area of concern, so that instruction can be appropriately organized.

In addition to the direct student assessment procedures which follow, it is recommended that information concerning the student's educational history be collected from knowledgeable informants. As discussed in the previous section, such information is necessary to properly interpret the students' performance and is in keeping with the ecological assessment philosophy espoused in this module.

The following questions might be asked of parents (guardians) and previous teachers.

1. Parents/Guardians

a. Are there any known medical problems that interfere with learning?

b. At what age did the student begin school?

c. Was attendance consistent? If interrupted, why?

d. Has the child ever been retained?

e. Where has the child attended school (countries, districts, schools)?

f. In what languages has the child been educated?

g. Does the child attend after-school, community-based or church school programs?

h. Has the family lived most of their lives in rural or urban areas?

i. What was the last grade completed by parents/guardians?

j. In what language are parents best able to assist the child at home with schoolwork?

2. Previous Teachers

a. What were the number of absences each month?

b. Was the child ever considered for retention?

c. What was the nature of the child's academic performance in each basic subject? (strong/weak subjects?)

d. Has the child ever participated in special programs or received special services (counseling, speech/language, Bilingual/ESL education programs?)

e. What methods and materials were used in the program and how did the student perform using these methods and materials?

Ask the child's previous teachers to describe the child's achievement in their classrooms using the profile provided in the next section.

3. Achievement Profile

Please rate the student on the items that follow, comparing him/her with other students in your program/classroom. Mark a point on the grid for each skill.

	Very Poor 3	Poor 2	Below Average 1	Average 0	Above Average 1	Very Good 2	Excellent 3	Is Progress Being Made (Circle Yes or No)
A Motor Skills								
1 Gross Motor								Yes No
2 Fine Motor								Yes No
B Academic Skills								
English								
1 Oral Language								
a Comprehension								Yes No
b Expression								Yes No
2 Reading*								Yes No
3 Written Language								Yes No
4 Mathematics								
a Computation*								Yes No
b Problem solving*								Yes No
c Concepts*								Yes No
Language Other Than English								
1 Oral Language								
a Comprehension								Yes No
b Expression								Yes No
2 Reading*								Yes No
3 Written Language								Yes No
4 Mathematics								
a Computation*								Yes No
b Problem solving*								Yes No
c Concepts*								Yes No
C. Social-Emotional								
1 Self-concept								
2 Peer interactions								
3 Adult interactions								
D. Adaptive Behavior								
1 Works independently								
2 Cooperates in Group								
3 Seeks Assistance Appropriately								
4 Uses Organizational Skills								
5 Stays on Task								
6 Shows Ability to Change Tasks								
7 Accepts Responsibility at School								
8 Follows School Rules								

III. PREVIOUS TESTS AND/OR SCREENING DATA (including language proficiency, L.D. screening, speech screening, etc.)

Date __________ Test used ______________________________ Results ______________________________

Date __________ Test used ______________________________ Results ______________________________

Date __________ Test used ______________________________ Results ______________________________

Date __________ Test used ______________________________ Results ______________________________

IV. OTHER COMMENTS

____

____

____

____

*Please indicate the level based on the form.

Developed in conjunction with the Illinois Resource Center and the Illinois State Board of Education. For more information contact Pat Chamberlain (312) 803-3112 or Alejandro Benavides (312) 890-8390 ©1984 IRC

B. Using the BRIGANCE® Diagnostic Assessment of Basic Skills Spanish Edition (a CRT) to Profile Academic Abilities

1. Fact Sheet

2. Sample Pages/Excerpt

   Table of Contents
   Purpose
   Features
   Components

3. Sample Diagnostic Assessments

4. Correlation with the Brigance® Comprehensive Inventory of Basic Skills

5. Record Book Sample Pages

   Student Data
   Recording Procedures

6. Practice Activity

1. FACT SHEET

BRIGANCE® DIAGNOSTIC ASSESSMENT OF BASIC SKILLS: SPANISH EDITION (1983-84)

Descriptive Information

Major Purposes:
- To screen for dominant language
- To determine grade level placement grade-level [7 grade level screens; K-6]
- To identify specific strengths and weaknesses in readiness, speech, listening, reading, language arts and math. Contains 102 diagnostic basic skill assessments.
- To track student progress in his/her instructional program

Score Interpretation: Criterion-referenced (task analysis)

Grade Range: K-6

Target Groups: All Hispanic Groups. (Contains references to appropriate regional variations to be substituted for each Hispanic ethnic group)

Administration Time: *Dominant Language Screen* - approximately 15-20 minutes
Grade Level Screen - approximately 15-30 minutes
In-depth Diagnostic Assessment--dependent on number & length of subtests to be administered

Administrator Requirements: The administrator should be proficient in Spanish and English and be familiar with the scoring and record-keeping systems.

Author: Albert H. Brigance
(Adaptation of Spanish Instrument under the coordination of Pamela Messer)

Source: Curriculum Associates, Inc.
5 Esquire Road
North Billerica, MA 01862-2589
1-800-225-0248

Technical Information

The publisher states that a national group of advisors (linguists and educators) participated in the adaptation process by critiquing and revising items for potential inclusion. A questionnaire was mailed to 10,000 educators involved in bilingual, ESL, migrant and bilingual special education programs to ascertain which of the 183 assessments from the English battery, *The Comprehensive Inventory of Basic Skills* (K-8), were appropriate for inclusion. In addition, 150 field-testers reviewed each assessment (once adapted into Spanish) for content validity, clarity of directions, Spanish grammatical structure, and Spanish word choice.

Each field tester validated the assessments with at least two students. The publisher states that the overall content validity is 98%.

Cultural and Linguistic Information

Skill sequences were developed by researching Spanish and English texts of various publishers to determine the sequence and grade levels at which skills are most frequently taught and when competency should be expected. Grade notations are given to indicate these levels on the examiner pages and in the student record book for specific assessments. (In Spanish, McGraw-Hill, Laidlaw, Santillana, Crane and Economy Spanish basal series were analyzed to determine the grade sequence noted). The publisher claims the instrument is culturally fair, since regional terms and expressions are provided to make the instrument more appropriate for use with all Hispanic youngsters. The test was field tested throughout the U.S. and in Latin America in hospitals/clinics and a variety of school settings.

SAMPLE PAGES

NEW

BRIGANCE® Diagnostic
ASSESSMENT OF BASIC SKILLS
SPANISH EDITION

By Albert H. Brigance

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Third-Grade Screening Form xxxi
Fourth-Grade Screening Form xxxiii
Fifth-Grade Screening Form xxxv
Sixth-Grade Screening Form xxxvii

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○ = Individual Oral Response
● = Individual or Group Written Response (Student Page Can Be Duplicated)
▲ = Individual or Group Performance
• = Dominant Language Assessment

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Printed in USA 5 4 3 2
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INTRODUCTION

PURPOSE

The *BRIGANCE® Assessment of Basic Skills — Spanish Edition* is a multi-purpose resource for bilingual, ESL, migrant, and bilingual special education programs. The *Assessment of Basic Skills* is designed to be used with preschool, elementary, and middle school students as:

- **An Indicator of Language Dominance:** Selected assessments of oral language and literacy skills can be given in Spanish as well as in English. The results of the assessments in both languages can be compared and cross-validated with other data to determine the language in which the student shows the most proficiency and preference. Determining language dominance is useful for placing the student in the most appropriate program.

- **A Screening Process for Quickly Identifying Achievement Level:** A sampling of skills for each grade level, kindergarten through grade six, can be assessed to determine if the student is performing at the expected grade level. This data can be used for grouping the students at the appropriate instructional level or for referring any student for more comprehensive evaluation.

- **An In-Depth Diagnostic Instrument:** 102 tests in the areas of readiness, speech, reading, listening, language arts, and math can be used to:
  a. diagnose the degree of the student's proficiency in the basic skills.
  b. distinguish whether or not the student's weaknesses are related only to limited English proficiency or to a specific learning disability.

- **An Instructional Guide:** The *Assessment of Basic Skills* provides functional and measurable objectives to be achieved by the student in order to master specific skill levels. These objectives are useful for developing and communicating an Individualized Education Plan.

- **A Record-Keeping and Tracking System:** A system of record books and screening forms are designed to provide comprehensive information about individuals and groups of students and to track their progress.

In summary, the *BRIGANCE® Assessment of Basic Skills — Spanish Edition* enables the bilingual, ESL, migrant, and bilingual special needs teacher to identify, develop, implement, and evaluate instructional programs for Spanish-speaking students.

FEATURES

THE *BRIGANCE*® *ASSESSMENT OF BASIC SKILLS* — *SPANISH EDITION*

IS COMPREHENSIVE. The *Assessment of Basic Skills* includes 102 tests for readiness, speech, reading, listening, language arts, and math. This breadth and scope permit the selection of assessments that will yield the most helpful data for meeting specific student and program needs.

IS CRITERION-REFERENCED. The *Assessment of Basic Skills* is based on observable functions and is sequenced by task analysis of basic developmental and academic skills. A sufficient number of items is included for each skill so that results can be easily translated into Individualized Education Plans (IEP's).

IS TEXT-REFERENCED. Most of the skill sequences were developed by researching the Spanish and English texts most widely used nation-wide. These text references were also used to determine when competency should be expected. When useful, grade level notations indicate the levels at which achievement is expected. These notations have been marked in the skill anaysis on the examiner pages and in the *Student Record Book*.

HAS CONTENT VALIDITY. Each assessment has been reviewed for content validity by a national group of advisors, including authorities in Spanish translation, linguists, and educators. Each assessment has also been field-tested with Spanish-speaking students by over 150 professionals in the fields of bilingual, ESL, migrant, and bilingual special education.

HAS GRADE LEVEL SCREENING FORMS. Seven screening forms for grades kindergarten to six provide a means to obtain a quick sampling of the student's skills at grade level. The screening results can be used to place students at the appropriate instructional level and to identify any student who should be referred for more comprehensive evaluation.

HAS A DOMINANT LANGUAGE SCREENING FORM. Selected assessments can be given in Spanish or in English. The results of the assessments in both languages can be recorded on the *Dominant Language Screening Form*. This screen can be used to help the examiner understand in which language the student shows the most proficiency and preference. The information is useful for program placement purposes.

REQUIRES NO SPECIAL TRAINING IN TESTING. The *Assessment of Basic Skills* uses a direct approach to testing. It requires no complex statistical procedures for deriving and interpreting results. The assessment procedures are simple; many can be given, with supervision, by an aide adept in the Spanish language.

REQUIRES NO SPECIAL MATERIALS. The assessments are made by using printed materials included in the *Assessment of Basic Skills* or copies of the student page and a pencil. Occasionally an item found in the school program will be useful.

OFFERS AN EFFICIENT RECORD-KEEPING SYSTEM. The *Assessment of Basic Skills* offers a simple system for recording student and group performance. There are four forms: *The Student Record Book*, the *Class Record Book*, the *Kindergarten* through *Sixth-Grade Screening Forms*, and the *Dominant Language Screening Form*. Each record book and screening form is specific and easily interpreted.

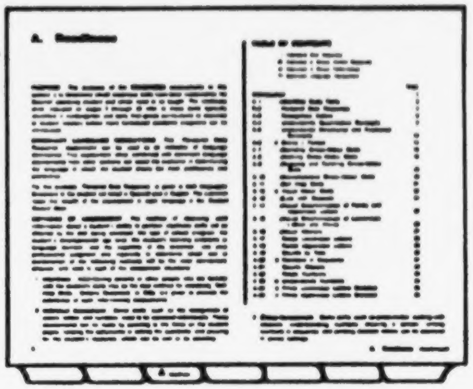
HELPS SCHOOL SYSTEMS TO COMPLY WITH STATE AND FEDERAL MANDATES. The dominant language screen, the grade level screens, and the 102 skill sequences facilitate compliance with the identification and program placement mandates of: The Lau Remedies, Bilingual Education Act, Chapter I Basic and Chapter I Migrant Education Programs, and P.L. 94-142. In addition, the *Assessment of Basic Skills* meets nondiscriminatory testing requirements for Spanish-speaking students.

COMPONENTS

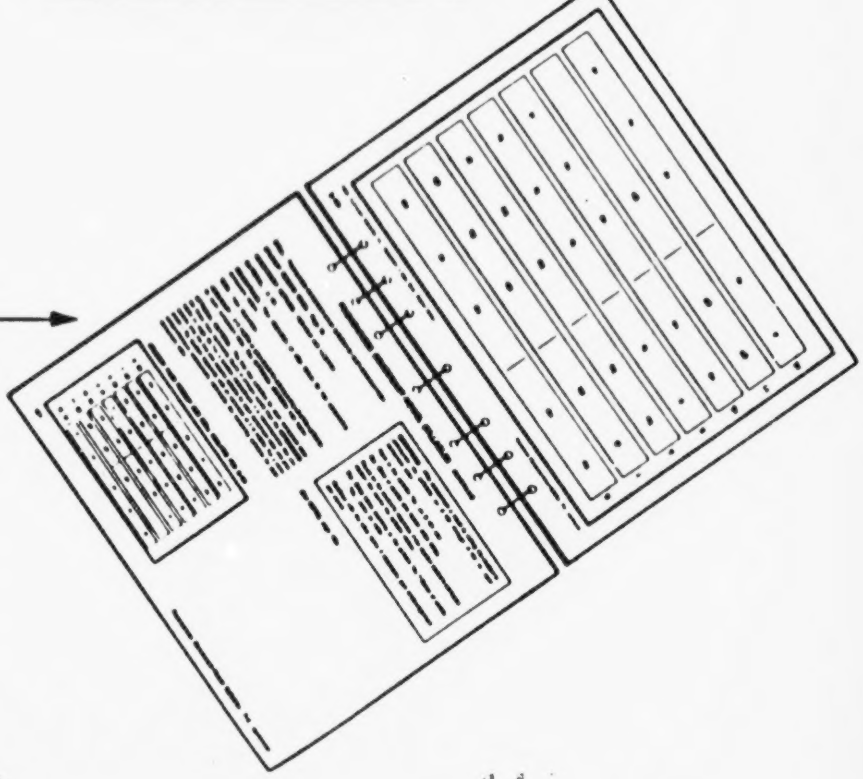
- **Ten tab-divided sections** containing 102 assessments for prekindergarten through grade eight in the areas of:

  READINESS
  SPEECH
  FUNCTIONAL WORD RECOGNITION
  ORAL READING
  READING COMPREHENSION
  WORD ANALYSIS
  LISTENING
  WRITING AND ALPHABETIZING
  NUMBERS AND COMPUTATION
  MEASUREMENT

  Each tab includes the section introduction. The **INTRODUCTION** lists the assessments in the section and provides specifics such as purpose, methods of assessment, and references.



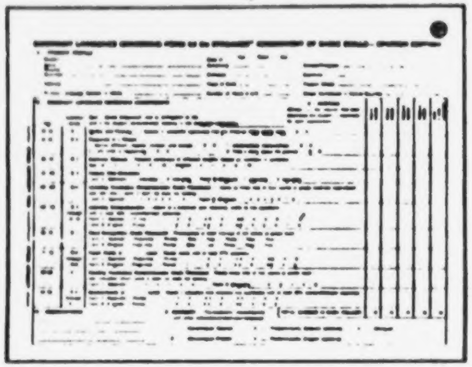
- **102 detailed assessments** for evaluating specific skills in each of the ten sections of the *Assessment of Basic Skills*. Many assessments include both a student and examiner page. Some assessments, such as those that evaluate gross-motor and listening skills, include only the examiner page. The student page is oriented so that the student faces the examiner during individual oral assessments. Directions for conducting the assessment are written in English on the examiner's page. Directions to the student are written in Spanish and clearly labeled. For dominant language assessments, directions to the student are written in English as well as in Spanish. For individual or group written assessment, the student page can be easily removed from the binder and used as a black-line master.



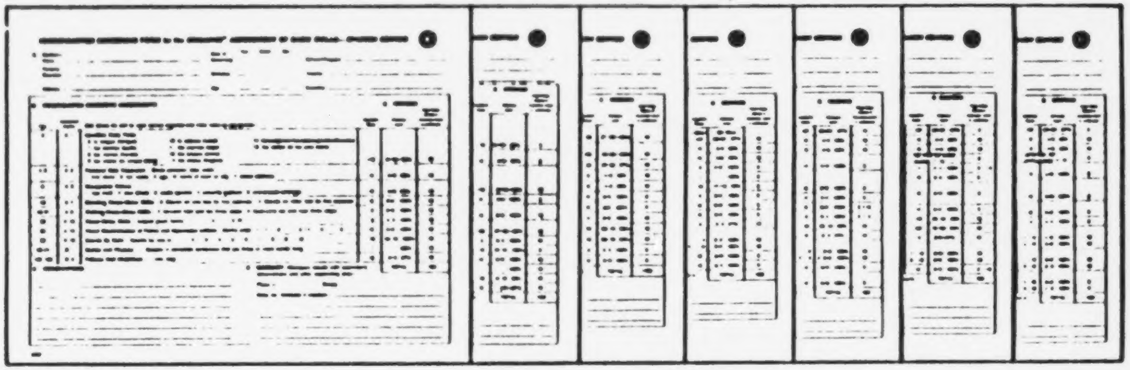
- **Student Record Books** for graphically recording at each testing the level of competency that the student has achieved. The *Student Record Book* communicates to specialists, teachers, and administrators current instructional goals for the students.
- **Class Record Book—An Optional Item** for tracking progress of 35 students. All skills listed in the *Student Record Book* are found in the *Class Record Book*, forming an extensive matrix of individual student competencies.

COMPONENTS *(continued)*

- **Reproducible Dominant Language Screening Form:** All of the oral language and literacy assessments can be given in Spanish and in English. The *Dominant Language Screening Form* includes the specific skills from these assessments. Comparing the student's level of competency in each language is useful for program placement purposes.



- **Reproducible Kindergarten to Sixth-Grade Screening Forms:** Each screening form includes skills that are indicators of success at the respective grade level. The screening results are useful for indicating the instructional level in which the student should be placed and for identifying any student who should be referred for more comprehensive evaluation.



- **Appendices that tell in detail:**
  - how the *Assessment of Basic Skills* was developed.
  - how it was field-tested.
  - how it can be used to assist programs in meeting state and federal requirements.
  - how it correlates with the *BRIGANCE® Comprehensive Inventory of Basic Skills*.

The **APPENDICES** also include an extensive bibliography that includes the research materials and textbooks used to validate the scope, sequence, and grade levels of the skills.

Screening Forms

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Introduction xix
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Second-Grade Language Screening Form xxix
Third-Grade Language Screening Form xxxi
Fourth-Grade Language Screening Form xxxiii
Fifth-Grade Language Screening Form xxxv
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HISTORY AND DEVELOPMENT: During the development of the *Assessment of Basic Skills—Spanish Edition*, bilingual, ESL, migrant and bilingual special needs educators indicated the need for quick intake procedures. They requested that screening devices be developed to help them place new students in appropriate programs and instructional levels. In response, the author excerpted related assessments from the *Assessment of Basic Skills* to create a *Dominant Language Screen* and seven grade-level screens for kindergarten to grade six. The screens were then field tested to identify the assessments and skills as being the most appropriate for each screening purpose.

PURPOSE OF SCREENING PROCEDURE:

Dominant Language Screen: Dominant Language screening is conducted to indicate the language in which the student has the most proficiency and preference. This information is useful for placing the student in the appropriate program.

Kindergarten to Sixth-Grade Screens: Grade-level screening is conducted to indicate whether or not the student is performing at, above, or below the expected grade level. Knowing the student's achievement level is useful for:

- placing students at the appropriate instructional level.
- identifying any student who should be referred for a more comprehensive evaluation to determine the existence of learning problems.

BASIS FOR SELECTING ASSESSMENTS FOR EACH SCREENING FORM:

Dominant Language Screening Form: The assessments selected for the *Dominant Language Screening Form* are those that evaluate oral language and literacy skills. Each assessment is designed to be given in Spanish and in English. The results of the assessments in both languages should be compared and cross-validated with other data to identify the student's primary language.

Kindergarten to Sixth-Grade Screening Forms: The assessments and skills selected for the grade-level screening forms are those that meet the following criteria:

a. provide an overall picture of the basic skills in key academic areas for each grade level.
b. can be assessed expediently with a high degree of validity and objectivity.
c. are of a difficulty level that will identify the students who may not be successful and yet will allow most of the students to have the degree of success needed to feel positive about the screening.

COMPLETING THE STUDENT SCREENING FORMS: Each screening form has been designed to include all significant student data on one sheet so that it can be readily reviewed by a glance across the page. The student screening forms are completed as explained below. Also, see the examples on pages xxi and xxii.

A. **Student Profile:** This data can be obtained from official records as well as confirmed by other sources. Make an attempt to complete the *Student Profile* prior to beginning the screening so that you can focus all your attention on the student and on administration of the screening.

Screening Forms *(continued)*

Screening Forms *(continued)*

B. **Screening Assessments:** Assessment procedures for the skills evaluated in each screen are located on pages 3-185 of the *Assessment of Basic Skills*. The page and assessment number for each assessment procedure are listed in the left column of each screening form. As the student demonstrates mastery of a skill, the examiner circles the skill or skill number. On the *Dominant Language Screening Form*, the examiner circles S (Spanish) and/or E (English) or the skill if the student demonstrates mastery in the language assessed.

For the quickest screen of oral reading, reading comprehension, and listening comprehension skills, initiate each assessment at the highest grade level at which the student is expected to succeed. On the *Second* to *Sixth-Grade Screening Forms*, the student is expected to achieve the accuracy level for only one of the two grade levels listed for each of these three assessments. Use your discretion to determine which grade level to assess.

C. **Scoring:** This section is optional. The examiner may use local criteria to rank items. Scoring is useful only as an indicator and should be compared with other supporting data before a student is placed in any program or instructional level.

Scoring the Dominant Language Screening Form: For each assessment, the examiner places a check in the column that best describes the student's responses. The student's responses may be:

1. Only in Spanish
2. Only in English
3. Mostly in Spanish
4. Mostly in English
5. Same in Both Languages

The total number of checks for each column is then tallied at the bottom of the page. These results are then compared with other data to determine which category the student fits into:

1. Monolingual Spanish
2. Monolingual English
3. Predominantly Spanish-speaking
4. Predominantly English-speaking
5. Bilingual

For example, the student may be monolingual Spanish if his or her responses for 10/10 assessments are only in Spanish and other indicators show that he or she communicates only in Spanish. The student may be predominantly Spanish if his or her responses for 7/10 assessments are mostly in Spanish and other indicators show that he or she communicates in Spanish most of the time. *However, the judgment of the person responsible for the screening is always more important than the actual score.*

Scoring the Kindergarten to Sixth-Grade Screening Forms: The first step in deriving a score is to record the number of correct responses for each assessment in the left column of this section. This number is then compared with the recommended accuracy level in the second column. If the accuracy level is achieved, circle the point value in the last column. The **TOTAL** is derived by adding the point values which have been circled. The point values were assigned to yield a possible total score of 100.

A score of 60/100 (60%) or higher indicates that the student will probably have success at that grade level. It is recommended that any student who scores below 60% be considered for more comprehensive evaluation. *However, each school program may wish to establish its own cutoff scores for indicating grade placement and for identifying students who should be referred for additional assessment.*

D. **Observations:** Space has been provided for recording any significant observations or concerns. Additional observations can be recorded on the back of each screening form if needed.

E. **Summary:** After the screening is completed, all personnel involved in the screening should meet to compare the screening results with other supporting data. Following a review and discussion of all the indicators, recommendations regarding program placement, grade-level placement, and referral can be indicated in this section of the student screening form.

SECOND-GRADE SCREENING FORM for the *BRIGANCE®* *ASSESSMENT OF BASIC SKILLS*—SPANISH EDITION ❷

A. Student's Name Eduardo Villa
Parents/Guardian Ramón and María Villa
Address 15 Oakridge St.

Date of Screening Year 83 Month 9 Day 19
Birthdate 76 6 10
Last Grade Completed 1

School/Program Hunnewell School
Teacher Mrs. Thomas
Examiner Pamela Messer

B. SECOND-GRADE SCREENING ASSESSMENTS **C. SCORING**

Page	Assessment Number	Skill (Circle the skill for each correct response and make notes as appropriate.)	Student's Score	Accuracy Level	Point Value (Circle if Accuracy Level is achieved.)
35	A-24	**Prints Lowercase Letters Dictated:** [✓ o] [✓ a] [✓ d] [✓ g] [✓ q] [✓ b] [✓ p] [✓ c] [✓ e] [✓ i] [✓ l] [✓ t] [✓ f] [✓ j] [✓ n] [✓ ch] [✓ m] [✓ ñ] [✓ r] [✓ rr] [✓ h] [✓ u] [✓ ll] [✓ v] [✓ y] [✓ k] [✓ x] [✓ [illegible]] [✓ z] [✓ w]	30/30	27/30 = 90%	[✓ 10]
47-51	B-3	**Articulates Initial Sounds of Words:** [✓ p] [✓ m] [✓ t] [✓ b] [✓ f] [✓ ll] [✓ c] [✓ d] [✓ g] [✓ n] [✓ l] [✓ pl] [✓ v] [✓ s] [✓ ñ] [✓ z] [✓ tr] [✓ r] [✓ ch] [✓ j]	20/20	18/20 = 90%	[✓ 10]
71-72	D-2, 3	**Reads Orally at:** Primer Level or [✓ Lower First-Grade Level]	33/33	32/33 = 97%	[✓ 10]
84-85	E-2, 3	**Comprehends at:** Primer Level or [✓ Lower First-Grade Level]	5/5	4/5 = 80%	[✓ 10]
131-132	G-5, 6	**Listens and Comprehends at:** Primer Level or [✓ Lower First-Grade Level]	5/5	4/5 = 80%	[✓ 10]
159	I-1	**Writes Numbers Dictated:** Writes numbers for quantity range 10-100: [✓ 35] [✓ 67] [✓ 43] [✓ 82] [✓ 39]	5/5	5/5 = 100%	[✓ 5]
160	I-2	**Recognizes Numbers:** Reads number to b. 99: [✓ 39] [✓ 27] [✓ 98] [✓ 72] [✓ 44] [✓ 85]	6/6	6/6 = 100%	[✓ 5]
161	I-3	**Arranges Numbers in order:** Numerical order for quantities: 2. 10 to 100	3/5	5/5 = 100%	10
162	I-4	**Addition Facts:** Knows facts for sums up to: [✓ 6] [✓ 8] [✓ 10] [✓ 12] [✓ 14] [✓ 16] 19	60/70	63/70 = 90%	10
163	I-5	**Subtraction Facts:** Knows differences for minuends to: [✓ 6] [✓ 8] [✓ 10] [✓ 12] [✓ 14] 16 19	50/70	63/70 = 90%	10
177	J-1	**Tells Time:** Tells time to the: [✓ 1. hour]	3/3	3/3 = 100%	[✓ 5]
179	J-3	**Recognizes Money:** Gives name and value of: [✓ 1. penny] [✓ 2. nickel] [✓ 3. dime]	3/3	3/3 = 100%	[✓ 5]
				TOTAL	70/100

EXAMPLE OF COMPLETED STUDENT SCREENING FORM

D. OBSERVATIONS:

Eduardo demonstrates difficulties in number and letter formations – several reversals. A visual motor skills assessment is recommended.

E. SUMMARY: *(Compare results with examiner's observations and other supporting data.)*

Place in: 2nd Grade

Refer for: (indicate if needed.) assessment in visual motor skills.

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árbol

llover
también
camino
nuestra
vecino
voz
hija
máquina
desierto
cariñoso

favor
guarda
payaso
suelo
agradecido
tijeras
variedad
felicitación
bajar
estilo

peligroso
desaparece
responsabilidad
aspirar
victima
senda
investigación
autoridad
oponente
flexible

admiración
atmósfera
contaminar
uniforme
aptitud
emiten
reacción
violento
intelectual
opresión

WORD RECOGNITION GRADE PLACEMENT—FORM A

SKILL: Reads words at grade level (preprimer through five).

STUDENT RECORD BOOK: Pages 14 through 15.

ASSESSMENT METHOD: Individual oral response.

MATERIAL: S-69—Form A.

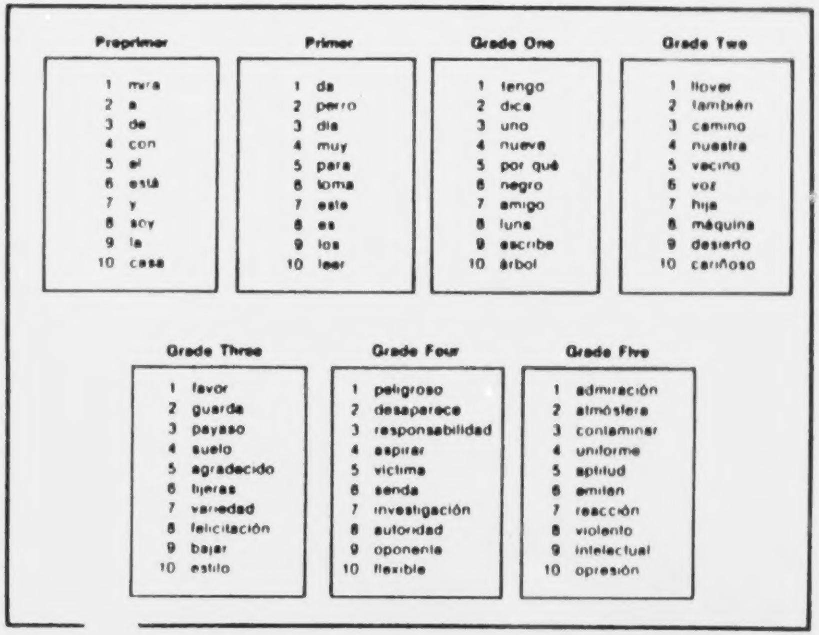
DISCONTINUE: Your discretion, or after determining the highest grade level at which the student can correctly pronounce at least five of the ten words.

TIME: Your discretion, or approximately three seconds per word.

ACCURACY: Give credit for the grade level at which the student correctly pronounces at least five of the ten words. Count as errors:

1. mispronounced words.
2. words that take the student more than three seconds to pronounce.

STUDENT PAGE FORMAT FOR S-69—FORM A



	Preprimer	Primer	Grade One	Grade Two
1	mira	da	tengo	llover
2	a	perro	dice	también
3	de	dia	uno	camino
4	con	muy	nueve	nuestra
5	el	para	por qué	vecino
6	está	toma	negro	voz
7	y	este	amigo	hija
8	soy	es	luna	máquina
9	la	los	escribe	desierto
10	casa	leer	árbol	cariñoso

	Grade Three	Grade Four	Grade Five
1	favor	peligroso	admiración
2	guarda	desaparece	atmósfera
3	payaso	responsabilidad	contaminar
4	suelo	aspirar	uniforme
5	agradecido	victima	aptitud
6	tijeras	senda	emiten
7	variedad	investigación	reacción
8	felicitación	autoridad	violento
9	bajar	oponente	intelectual
10	estilo	flexible	opresión

DIRECTIONS: *(This assessment is made by asking the student to pronounce the Spanish words on Form A and/or the English words on Form B. See* **INTRODUCTION,** *page 66, for using the assessment as an indicator of dominant language.)*

Point to the word list on S-69—Form A at the highest grade level at which you anticipate the student will be able to pronounce all ten words and

Say: **Lee estas palabras en voz alta lo más rápido que puedas. Empieza con la primera palabra de la lista.**

Circle the words in the *Student Record Book* as they are pronounced by the student. Do not give any help sounding out the words.

Continue the assessment until the student is unable to pronounce at least five of the ten words for a given grade level.

NOTES:

1. **Level at Which Oral Reading Assessments Can Be Initiated:** The oral reading assessments (D-2 through D-6) can be initiated one grade level lower than the level at which the student scores on this assessment.
2. **Supplemental Comprehension Assessment:** This assessment measures only the student's word recognition skills at grade level. If you wish to assess for knowledge of word meanings, ask the student to give the meanings of the words or use the words in sentences or phrases.

(D-1.1)

SPANISH OBJECTIVE: By ______(date)______, when shown a list of ten Spanish words referenced at the __________ grade level, ____(student's name)____ will correctly pronounce at least five of the ten words within three-second intervals.

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dog
go
have
help
I
look
that
the
we
who

again
day
fun
new
of
some
thank
must
two
take

gave
sleep
try
bring
which
way
airplane
read
it's
found

threw
choose
squirrel
straight
knock
eight
mountain
noise
circus
fruit

cheerful
knives
invisible
anxious
although
mistaken
museum
worries
stomach
drawer

pronunciation
paragraph
expression
gnaw
imaginary
structure
anchored
foolishness
cinnamon
musician

characteristic
arguing
superintendent
guarantee
nuisance
appreciate
literature
identify
triumphant
description

WORD RECOGNITION GRADE PLACEMENT—FORM B *(continued)*

SKILL: Reads words at grade level (preprimer through five).

STUDENT RECORD BOOK: Pages 14 through 15.

ASSESSMENT METHOD: Individual oral response.

MATERIAL: S-70—Form B.

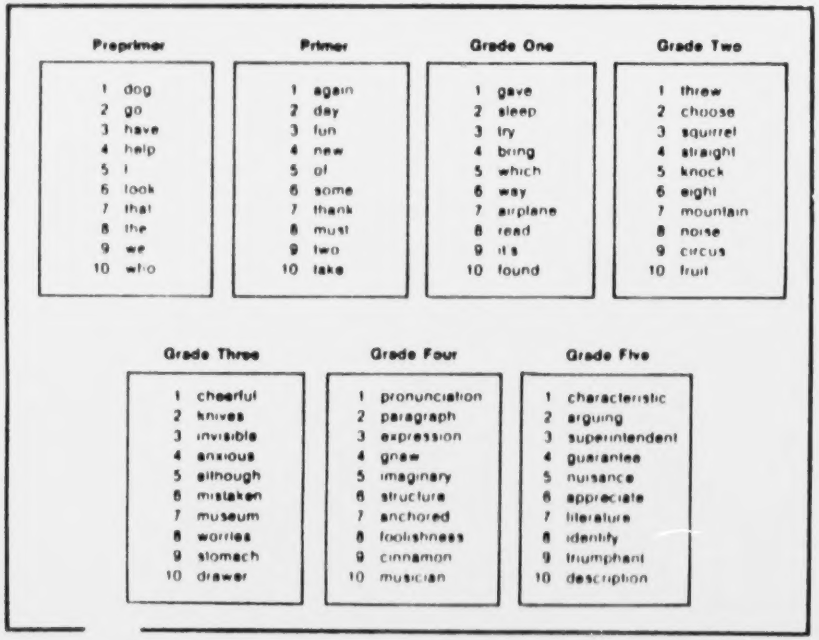
DISCONTINUE: Your discretion, or after determining the highest grade level at which the student can correctly pronounce at least five of the ten words.

TIME: Your discretion, or approximately three seconds per word.

ACCURACY: Give credit for the grade level at which the student correctly pronounces at least five of the ten words. Count as errors:

1. mispronounced words.
2. words that take the student more than three seconds to pronounce.

STUDENT PAGE FORMAT FOR S-70—FORM B



Preprimer	Primer	Grade One	Grade Two
1 dog	1 again	1 gave	1 threw
2 go	2 day	2 sleep	2 choose
3 have	3 fun	3 try	3 squirrel
4 help	4 new	4 bring	4 straight
5 I	5 of	5 which	5 knock
6 look	6 some	6 way	6 eight
7 that	7 thank	7 airplane	7 mountain
8 the	8 must	8 read	8 noise
9 we	9 two	9 it's	9 circus
10 who	10 take	10 found	10 fruit

Grade Three	Grade Four	Grade Five
1 cheerful	1 pronunciation	1 characteristic
2 knives	2 paragraph	2 arguing
3 invisible	3 expression	3 superintendent
4 anxious	4 gnaw	4 guarantee
5 although	5 imaginary	5 nuisance
6 mistaken	6 structure	6 appreciate
7 museum	7 anchored	7 literature
8 worries	8 foolishness	8 identify
9 stomach	9 cinnamon	9 triumphant
10 drawer	10 musician	10 description

DIRECTIONS: *(This assessment is made by asking the student to pronounce the Spanish words on Form A and/or the English words on Form B. See* **INTRODUCTION**, *page 66, for using the assessment as an indicator of dominant language.)*

Point to the word list on S-70—Form B at the highest grade level at which you anticipate the student will be able to pronounce all ten words and

Say: **Read the words aloud as quickly as you can. Start with the first word in the list.**

Circle the words in the *Student Record Book* as they are pronounced by the student. Do not give any help sounding out the words.

Continue the assessment until the student is unable to pronounce at least five of the ten words for a given grade level.

NOTES:

1. **Level at Which Oral Reading Assessments Can Be Initiated:** The oral reading assessments (D-2 through D-6) can be initiated one grade level lower than the level at which the student scores on this assessment.
2. **Supplemental Comprehension Assessment:** This assessment measures only the student's word recognition skills at grade level. If you wish to assess for knowledge of word meanings, ask the student to give the meanings of the words or use the words in sentences or phrases.

(D-1.2)

ENGLISH OBJECTIVE: By ________(date)________, when shown a list of ten English words referenced at the __________ grade level, ________(student's name)________ will correctly pronounce at least five of the ten words within three-second intervals.

A.

Mira mi perro.
Mira como corre y salta.
A mí me gusta mucho jugar con mi perro.
Podemos correr.
Podemos saltar.
¿A ti te gusta mi perro?
Mi perro te quiere a ti.

B.

Look at me.
See what I can do.
I can run and jump.
Do you like to play?
I like to play.
Will you play with me?
We can run.
We can jump.

A.

El niño pequeño ve la pelota.
Él corre a coger la pelota.
La pelota es roja y amarilla.
Al niño le gusta la pelota.
Él juega y se divierte con su pelota nueva.

B.

The dog saw the little girl.
The girl did not know the dog.
She ran away from it.
The girl went into her house.
The dog was surprised.
It had come to play.

READS ORALLY AT PREPRIMER OR PRIMER LEVEL

SKILL: Reads orally at preprimer or primer level.

STUDENT RECORD BOOK: Page 15.

ASSESSMENT METHOD: Individual oral response.

MATERIAL: S-71.

DISCONTINUE: Your discretion, or after determining the highest grade level at which the student reads orally in Spanish and English with at least 97% accuracy.

TIME: Your discretion.

ACCURACY: At least 97% (no more than one error) for the Spanish or English story of 33 words at the preprimer or primer level. (See **INTRODUCTION**, page 68, for further explanation.)

STUDENT PAGE FORMAT FOR S-71—FORMS A AND B

Preprimer

A.

Mira mi perro
Mira como corre y salta.
A mi me gusta mucho jugar con mi perro
Podemos correr
Podemos saltar
¿A ti te gusta mi perro?
Mi perro te quiere a ti

B.

Look at me
See what I can do
I can run and jump
Do you like to play?
I like to play
Will you play with me?
We can run
We can jump

Primer

A.

El niño pequeño ve la pelota
Él corre a coger la pelota
La pelota es roja y amarilla
Al niño le gusta la pelota.
Él juega y se divierte con su pelota nueva

B.

The dog saw the little girl
The girl did not know the dog
She ran away from it
The girl went into her house
The dog was surprised
It had come to play

DIRECTIONS: *(This assessment is made by asking the student to read orally the Spanish story (Form A) and/or the English story (Form B) on S-71 for the preprimer or primer level. See* **INTRODUCTION**, *page 66, for using the assessment as an indicator of dominant language.)*

Point to the story you want the student to read and

Say: a. **Quiero que leas este cuento en voz alta.**
b. I want you to read this story aloud.

If the student does not know a word, wait five seconds and then pronounce the word for the student. If the student substitutes, self-corrects, inserts, omits, or repeats any word, ask him or her to reread the sentence it is in.

Point to the sentence where the error was made and

Say: a. **Lee esta frase otra vez.**
b. Read this sentence again.

Continue the assessment at higher or lower grade levels until you determine the highest grade level at which the student can read with 97% accuracy.

(D-2.1)
SPANISH OBJECTIVE: By ______ (date), when shown a Spanish story of 33 words referenced at the (preprimer, primer) level, ______ (student's name) will read the story aloud and have difficulty with no more than one word (97% accuracy).

(D-2.2)
ENGLISH OBJECTIVE: By ______ (date), when shown an English story of 33 words referenced at the (preprimer, primer) level, ______ (student's name) will read the story aloud and have difficulty with no more than one word (97% accuracy).

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

DIRECCIONES: Haz todos los problemas que puedas. Ten cuidado de hacer lo que te dicen los signos de cada problema.

NOMBRE:________________________________

1. a. 37 +41	b. 72 +19	c. 452 +143	d. 387 +442	e. 287 +549	f. 3946 +2087
32 +46	28 +47	314 +521	445 +383	478 +267	2079 +5953

---

2. a. 76 -23	b. 62 -27	c. 686 -243	d. 382 -234	e. 573 -495	f. 4003 -2326
68 -35	72 -34	697 -343	584 -347	362 -297	5006 -3568

WHOLE NUMBERS COMPUTATION SURVEY

SKILL: Adds, subtracts, multiplies, and divides whole numbers.

STUDENT RECORD BOOK: Page 22.

ASSESSMENT METHODS: Individual or group written response.

MATERIALS: Copy of S-167, a pencil, and scratch paper.

DISCONTINUE: Your discretion, or when the student has responded to all the items he or she knows well.

TIME: Your discretion as to how much time the student can use profitably.

ACCURACY: 2/2 (100%) for each skill.

DIRECTIONS: *(This assessment is made by asking the student to compute the answers for as many of the problems on S-167 and S-168 as possible.)*

Use the words in brackets for giving directions to a group.

Give each student a copy of S-167, a pencil, and scratch paper. Point out the **DIRECTIONS** to the student.

Say: **Cuando yo te [les] diga que empieces [empiecen], haz [hagan] todos los problemas que puedas [puedan]. Ten [Tengan] cuidado de hacer lo que te [les] dicen los signos de cada problema.**

Quiero que trabajes [trabajen] hasta que (hayas [hayan] terminado.) *or* **(te [les] diga que pares [paren].) Ahora empieza [empiecen].**

ANSWERS FOR S-167

1. a. 78	b. 91	c. 595	d. 829	e. 838	f. 6,033
b. 78	75	835	828	745	8,032
2. a. 53	b. 35	c. 443	d. 148	e. 78	f. 1,677
b. 33	38	354	237	65	1,438

(See page 173 for Skill Analysis and Answers for S-167.)

APPENDIX C

Correlation of the *Assessment of Basic Skills* with the *BRIGANCE® Comprehensive Inventory of Basic Skills*

ASSESSMENT OF BASIC SKILLS		COMPREHENSIVE INVENTORY OF BASIC SKILLS	
A.	**READINESS**	**A.**	**READINESS**
A-1	Identifies Body Parts	A-1	Identifies Body Parts
A-2	Personal Data Response	A-2	Personal Data Response
A-3	Recognizes Colors	A-3	Recognizes Colors
A-4	Understands Quantitative Concepts	A-4	Understands Quantitative Concepts
A-5	Understands Directional and Positional Concepts	A-5	Understands Directional and Positional Concepts
A-6	Draws a Person	A-6	Draws a Person
A-7	Standing Gross-Motor Skills	A-7	Standing Gross-Motor Skills
A-8	Walking Gross-Motor Skills	A-8	Walking Gross-Motor Skills
A-9	Skipping and Running Gross-Motor Skills	A-9	Skipping and Running Gross-Motor Skills
A-10	Miscellaneous Gross-Motor Skills	A-10	Miscellaneous Gross-Motor Skills
A-11	Self-Help Skills	A-11	Self-Help Skills
A-12	Visual-Motor Skills	A-12	Visual-Motor Skills
A-13	Cuts with Scissors	A-13	Cuts with Scissors
A-14	Visual Discrimination of Forms and Uppercase Letters	A-14	Visual Discrimination of Forms and Uppercase Letters
A-15	Visual Discrimination of Lowercase Letters and Words	A-15	Visual Discrimination of Lowercase Letters and Words
A-16	Visual Memory	A-16	Visual Memory
A-17	Reads Lowercase Letters	A-19	Reads Lowercase Letters
A-18	Reads Uppercase Letters	A-20	Reads Uppercase Letters
A-19	Counts by Rote	A-17	Counts by Rote
A-20	Numbers in Sequence	A-25	Numbers in Sequence
A-21	Counts Objects	A-21	Counts Objects
A-22	Reads Numbers	A-22	Reads Numbers
A-23	Understands Numbers	A-24	Understands Numbers
A-24	Prints Lowercase Letters Dictated	A-29	Prints Lowercase Letters Dictated
A-25	Prints Uppercase Letters Dictated	A-30	Prints Uppercase Letters Dictated
B.	**SPEECH**	**B.**	**SPEECH**
B-1	Syntax and Fluency	B-1	Syntax and Fluency
B-2	Responds to a Picture	B-2	Responds to a Picture
B-3	Articulates Initial Sounds of Words	B-3	Articulates Initial Sounds of Words
B-4	Articulates Final Sounds of Words	B-4	Articulates Final Sounds of Words
C.	**FUNCTIONAL WORD RECOGNITION**	**G.**	**WORD RECOGNITION GRADE PLACEMENT**
C-1	Basic Vocabulary	G-1	Basic Sight Vocabulary
C-2	Signs and Labels	G-5	Warning and Safety Signs
		G-6	Informational Signs
		G-7	Warning Labels
C-3	Number Words	G-9	Number Words

APPENDIX C *(continued)*

ASSESSMENT OF BASIC SKILLS		COMPREHENSIVE INVENTORY OF BASIC SKILLS	
D.	**ORAL READING**	**D.**	**ORAL READING**
D-1	Word Recognition Grade Placement	C-1	Word Recognition Grade Placement
D-2	Reads Orally at Preprimer or Primer Level	D-1	Reads Orally at Preprimer or Primer Level
D-3	Reads Orally at Lower or Upper First-Grade Level	D-2	Reads Orally at Lower or Upper First-Grade Level
D-4	Reads Orally at Lower or Upper Second-Grade Level	D-3	Reads Orally at Lower or Upper Second-Grade Level
D-5	Reads Orally at Lower or Upper Third-Grade Level	D-4	Reads Orally at Lower or Upper Third-Grade Level
D-6	Reads Orally at Fourth or Fifth-Grade Level	D-5	Reads Orally at Fourth or Fifth-Grade Level
E.	**READING COMPREHENSION**	**E.**	**READING COMPREHENSION**
E-1	Reading Vocabulary Comprehension Grade Placement	E-1	Reading Vocabulary Comprehension Grade Placement
E-2	Comprehends at Primer Level	E-2	Comprehends at Primer Level
E-3	Comprehends at Lower First-Grade Level	E-3	Comprehends at Lower First-Grade Level
E-4	Comprehends at Upper First-Grade Level	E-4	Comprehends at Upper First-Grade Level
E-5	Comprehends at Lower Second-Grade Level	E-5	Comprehends at Lower Second-Grade Level
E-6	Comprehends at Upper Second-Grade Level	E-6	Comprehends at Upper Second-Grade Level
E-7	Comprehends at Lower Third-Grade Level	E-7	Comprehends at Lower Third-Grade Level
E-8	Comprehends at Upper Third-Grade Level	E-8	Comprehends at Upper Third-Grade Level
E-9	Comprehends at Fourth-Grade Level	E-9	Comprehends at Fourth-Grade Level
E-10	Comprehends at Fifth-Grade Level	E-10	Comprehends at Fifth-Grade Level
E-11	Comprehends at Sixth-Grade Level	E-11	Comprehends at Sixth-Grade Level
F.	**WORD ANALYSIS**	**F.**	**WORD ANALYSIS**
F-9	Identifies Number of Syllables in Spoken Words	F-16	Identifies Number of Syllables in Spoken Words
G.	**LISTENING**	**H.**	**LISTENING**
G-1	Auditory Discrimination	H-1	Auditory Discrimination
G-2	Sentence Memory	H-2	Sentence Memory
G-3	Follows Oral Directions	H-3	Follows Oral Directions
G-4	Listening Vocabulary Comprehension Grade Placement	H-4	Listening Vocabulary Comprehension Grade Placement
G-5	Listens and Comprehends at Primer Level	H-6	Listens and Comprehends at Primer Level
G-6	Listens and Comprehends at Lower First-Grade Level	H-7	Listens and Comprehends at Lower First-Grade Level
G-7	Listens and Comprehends at Upper First-Grade Level	H-8	Listens and Comprehends at Upper First-Grade Level
G-8	Listens and Comprehends at Lower Second-Grade Level	H-9	Listens and Comprehends at Lower Second-Grade Level
G-9	Listens and Comprehends at Upper Second-Grade Level	H-10	Listens and Comprehends at Upper Second-Grade Level
G-10	Listens and Comprehends at Lower Third-Grade Level	H-11	Listens and Comprehends at Lower Third-Grade Level
G-11	Listens and Comprehends at Upper Third-Grade Level	H-12	Listens and Comprehends at Upper Third-Grade Level
G-12	Listens and Comprehends at Fourth-Grade Level	H-13	Listens and Comprehends at Fourth-Grade Level
G-13	Listens and Comprehends at Fifth-Grade Level	H-14	Listens and Comprehends at Fifth-Grade Level
G-14	Listens and Comprehends at Sixth-Grade Level	H-15	Listens and Comprehends at Sixth-Grade Level
G-15	Listens and Comprehends at Seventh-Grade Level	H-16	Listens and comprehends at Seventh-Grade Level
G-16	Listens and Comprehends at Eighth-Grade Level	H-17	Listens and Comprehends at Eighth-Grade Level

APPENDIX C *(continued)*

ASSESSMENT OF BASIC SKILLS		COMPREHENSIVE INVENTORY OF BASIC SKILLS	
H.	**WRITING AND ALPHABETIZING**	**J.-K.**	**J. WRITING and K. ALPHABETIZING**
H-1	Writes Cursive Lowercase Letters Dictated	J-1	Writes Cursive Lowercase Letters in Sequence
H-2	Writes Cursive Uppercase Letters Dictated	J-2	Writes Cursive Uppercase Letters in Sequence
H-3	Quality of Writing	J-3	Quality of Writing
H-4	Writes Personal Data	J-4	Writes Personal Data
H-5	Sentence-Writing Grade Level Placement	J-5	Sentence Writing Grade Level Placement
H-6	Capitalization	J-6	Capitalization
H-7	Punctuation	J-7	Punctuation
H-8	Identifies Following and Preceding Letters of the Spanish Alphabet	K-1	Identifies Following and Preceding Letters of the Alphabet
H-9	Alphabetizes Spanish Words	K-2	Alphabetizes Words
I.	**NUMBERS AND COMPUTATION**	**M.-R.**	**M. MATH GRADE PLACEMENT, N. NUMBERS, O. NUMBER FACTS, P. COMPUTATION OF WHOLE NUMBERS, Q. FRACTIONS AND MIXED NUMBERS and R. DECIMALS**
I-1	Writes Numbers Dictated	N-4	Writes Numbers Dictated
I-2	Recognizes Numbers	N-1	Recognizes Numbers
I-3	Arranges Numbers in Order	N-2	Arranges Numbers in Order
I-4	Addition Facts	O-1	Addition Facts
I-5	Subtraction Facts	O-2	Subtraction Facts
I-6	Multiplication Facts	O-3	Multiplication facts
I-7	Division Facts	O-4	Division Facts
I-8	Word Problems Grade Placement	M-2	Word Problems Grade Placement
I-9	Whole Numbers Computation Survey	P-1	Whole Numbers Computation Survey
I-10	Fractions and Mixed Numbers Computation Survey	Q-1	Fractions and Mixed Numbers Computation Survey
I-11	Decimals Computation Survey	R-1	Decimals Computation Survey
J.	**MEASUREMENT**	**T.-U.**	**T. MEASUREMENT and U. METRICS**
J-1	Tells Time	T-1	Tells Time
		T-4	Equivalent Calendar Units
J-2	Uses Calendar	T-6	Uses Calendar
J-3	Recognizes Money	T-8	Recognizes Money
J-4	Equivalent Values of Coins and the Dollar Bill	T-9	Equivalent Values of Coins and the Dollar Bill
J-5	Totals Values of Groups of Coins	T-10	Totals Values of Groups of Coins
J-6	Equivalent English Linear Measurements	T-13	Equivalent English Linear Measurements
J-7	Measures with an Inch Ruler	T-14	Measures with an Inch Ruler
J-8	Understands Equivalent Metric Measurements	U-2	Understands Equivalent Metric Measurement
J-9	Measures with a Metric Ruler	U-6	Measures with a Metric Ruler

SAMPLE PAGES

____
STUDENT'S NAME

To order Assessment
Record Books, specify:
(Ten-pack) Cat. No. CA656
(100-pack) Cat. No. CA657

ASSESSMENT RECORD BOOK

BRIGANCE® Diagnostic

ASSESSMENT OF BASIC SKILLS—Spanish Edition

By Albert H. Brigance

TABLE OF CONTENTS

	Pages	Assessments
➔ Student Data	1	☐ ☐ ☐
➔ Recording Procedures	1	☐ ☐ ☐
➔ A. Readiness	2-7	☐ ☐ ☐
B. Speech	8-9	☐ ☐ ☐
C. Functional Word Recognition	9-13	☐ ☐ ☐
➔ D. Oral Reading	14-15	☐ ☐ ☐
E. Reading Comprehension	16	☐ ☐ ☐
F. Word Analysis	16-18	☐ ☐ ☐
G. Listening	18-19	☐ ☐ ☐
H. Writing and Alphabetizing	19-21	☐ ☐ ☐
➔ I. Numbers and Computation	21-23	☐ ☐ ☐
J. Measurement	23-24	☐ ☐ ☐

CURRICULUM ASSOCIATES [illegible]

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ASSESSMENT RECORD BOOK

Student's Name ______ Birth Date ______ Telephone ______

Parents ______

Home Address ______

Primary Language Spoken in Home ______

Place of Birth ______

Number of Years in U.S. ______

School/Program ______

Address ______

Comments ______

RECORDING PROCEDURES AND COLOR CODE

Mark each evaluation in a different color to develop a graphic profile of progress.

- **Circle** skills for which mastery is demonstrated.
- **Underline** objectives to be mastered by the next evaluation with the next color as listed below.
- See page xii of the *Assessment of Basic Skills—Spanish Edition* for further discussion.

Testing Observations

Write the letters "S" or "N" and circle "Yes" or "No" in the designated box to describe the student's responses during testing. Use a pencil or pen of the color indicated on the left.

S - Satisfactory N - Needs to improve

Evaluation	*Color*	*Date*	*Examiner*	Cooperation	Persistence	Attention Span	Concentration	Confidence	Rapport	Apparently Good Hearing		Apparently Good Vision	
1st	Pencil									Yes	No	Yes	No
2nd	Blue									Yes	No	Yes	No
3rd	Red									Yes	No	Yes	No
4th	Black									Yes	No	Yes	No
5th	Green									Yes	No	Yes	No
6th	Purple									Yes	No	Yes	No

Comments ______

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A. Readiness (continued)

ASSESSMENT PAGE

A 10 19–20

MISCELLANEOUS GROSS-MOTOR SKILLS:

*1. Walks up and down stairs without holding rail
2. Catches bounced playground ball with both hands
3. Catches thrown playground ball with both hands
4. Hops on one (dominant) foot a distance of 2 m (6' 8")
5. Hops on other foot a distance of 2 m (6' 8")
[1]6. Takes two or more coordinated steps and kicks a playground ball
7. Jumps rope five consecutive jumps[2]

Notes

A-11 21

SELF-HELP SKILLS:

*1. Puts on clothing
2. Buttons clothing
3. Totally cares for toileting needs, including washing and drying hands
4. Ties shoes
5. Knows which shoe goes on which foot
[1]6. Takes care of personal items
7. Prepares for different activities with minimal supervision[2]

Notes

A 12 22–23

VISUAL MOTOR SKILLS: Copies given forms

Page 22

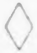
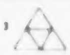
1.*

2.

3

Page 23

4. [1]

5. [2]

6. [2]

[4]

Notes

A 13 24

CUTS WITH SCISSORS:

*1. Cuts 13 cm (5") circle within 6 mm (1/4") in 35 seconds
2. Cuts 13 cm (5") curving line within 6 mm (1/4") in 35 seconds
[1]3. Cuts cardboard and cloth
4. Cuts out a picture of a doll or pet[2]

Notes

D. Oral Reading (continued)

ASSESSMENT PAGE

D-2 through D-6 71–75

READS ORALLY AT _______ LEVEL: Reads orally with at least 97% accuracy

FORM A (Spanish)	Grade Level	Preprimer	Primer	1-1	1-2	2-1	2-2	3-1	3-2	4	5
FORM B (English)	Grade Level	Preprimer	Primer	1-1	1-2	2-1	2-2	3-1	3-2	4	5

Notes

I. Numbers and Computations (continued)

ASSESSMENT PAGE

I-9 167–168

WHOLE NUMBERS COMPUTATION SURVEY:

Page 167

1. **Addition of Whole Numbers:**
    - [1]a 2 digits without renaming
    - [2]b 2 digits with 1 renaming
    - c 3 digits without renaming
    - [3]d 3 digits with 1 renaming
    - e 3 digits with 2 renamings
    - [4]f 4 digits with 3 renamings[5]
2. **Subtraction of Whole Numbers:**
    - [1]a 2 digits without renaming
    - [2]b 2 digits with 1 renaming
    - c 3 digits without renaming
    - [3]d 3 digits with 1 renaming
    - e 3 digits with 2 renamings
    - [4]f 4 digits with 3 renamings[5]

Page 168

3. **Multiplication of Whole Numbers:**
    - [4]a 2 digits × 1 digit without carrying
    - b 2 digits × 1 digit with carrying
    - [5]c 3 digits × 2 digits with carrying and **no** zero in multiplier
    - d 3 digits × 2 digits with carrying and zero in multiplier
    - [6]e 3 digits × 3 digits with carrying and **no** zero in multiplier
    - f 3 digits × 3 digits with carrying and zero in multiplier[7]
4. **Division of Whole Numbers:**
    - [4]a 2 digits by 1 digit
    - [5]b 2 digits by 2 digits
    - [6]c 3 digits by 2 digits with 1 digit in quotient
    - d 3 digits by 2 digits with 2 digits in quotient
    - [7]e 4 digits by 3 digits with **no** zero in quotient
    - f 4 digits by 3 digits with zero in quotient[8]

Notes

6. PRACTICE ACTIVITY

Administer the **Whole Numbers Computation Survey** on *Sample Page* 17 [Test S-167] to your case study student, if appropriate, or to another student in your program/classroom.

Record the results on the *Record Book Excerpt* provided in the previous section.

Bring any questions you may have back to class to discuss at the next session.

C. Using the Cloze Procedure to Assess Reading

1. Cloze testing in nine major languages with the Boston Cloze Tests

FACT SHEET

BOSTON CLOZE TEST (1980-85)

PURPOSE:	To assess L_1 and L_2 language proficiency including reading comprehension.
SUBTESTS:	Nine sets of three booklets. One set for each of nine languages. Each booklet contains six passages ranked for increasing difficulty. Seventh word deletion.
LANGUAGES:	English, Spanish, Khmer, Laotian, Greek, Italian, French, Chinese and Vietnamese.
ADMINISTRATION REQUIREMENTS:	Testing is untimed--students work at their own pace. Two sessions per student: one for L_1 and one for L_2. Teachers and students need training prior to actual administration of the tests.
AGES:	Reading level 2.0 - 4.5 grade = Booklet A Reading level 4.0 - 6.5 grade = Booklet B Reading level 6.0 - 8.5 grade = Booklet C
VALIDITY/ RELIABILITY:	Boston Public School System makes no claims on the reliability/validity of its tests for use by other school districts.

Validation data: Correlation of teachers' estimation and student performance = .75 (Chinese, Spanish, and English). Correlation of results from the Metropolitan Reading Achievement Test and student performance=.70 (English)

SCORING/ INTERPRETATION: Exact word scoring.
Scores of 38-44% = INSTRUCTIONAL LEVEL
Scores below 38% = FRUSTRATION LEVEL
Scores above 44% = INDEPENDENT LEVEL

Final score for each student is given in terms of reading grade level.

FOR MORE INFORMATION:
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SAMPLE PAGES

English Booklet C

READ THE WHOLE STORY FIRST. THEN FILL IN EACH BLANK WITH A WORD THAT MAKES SENSE.

STORY 14

The Grand Canyon trip was the first geology trip I took in a desert, and it also was the most impressive.

The canyon has been created by ____1____ river flowing through a dry, sandy ____2____ and digging an ever deepening trench. ____3____ is now nearly a mile deep ____4____ many miles across. As you are ____5____ along a narrow path that zigzags ____6____ and forth, you see the history ____7____ the land in the different layers ____8____ rocks. You notice the young rocks ____9____ top. As the river digs deeper, ____10____ exposes older and older layers. The ____11____ of some rocks in the deeper ____12____ has been estimated by geologists to ____13____ over two billion years.

The vegetation ____14____ changes greatly as you descend into ____15____ Grand Canyon. There is one zone, ____16____ up in the dark shadows, where ____17____ low temperature makes it cool enough ____18____ allow the growth of fir trees ____19____ are usually found farther north. Then, ____20____ the bottom, there is cactus of ____21____ same variety found only in the ____22____ to the south. This wide variety ____23____ rocks and plants is unusual. Imagine ____24____ slice of Canada piled on top ____25____ a slice of Mexico.

There are ____26____ kinds of animals also, including ____27____ mountain goats and horned toads — not ____28____ mention the burros, who are the ____29____ stubborn creatures we found in the ____30____. Because the burros were very tame, ____31____ saddled them so that we could ____32____ them back up the canyon wall. We enjoyed the burro ride and had learned a lot from our trip to the Grand Canyon.

SAMPLE PAGES

Vietnamese Booklet C

BAI DOC XIV

HAY DOC XONG CAU TRUYEN TRUOC, ROI DIEN VAO NHUNG CHO TRONG CHO HOP NGHIA.

1. Người khách mới đến thành Huế, tưởng như bước chân vào trong bức tranh cảnh: chung quanh núi, giữa con sông, ________1 của tụ họp hai bên bờ, ________2 bến dưới thuyền, trông xa một ________3 thành cổ bao-la, thâm-nghiêm ________4 cổng.

2. Cái phong-cảnh ở Hue ________5-đã đẹp, thứ nhất là bởi ________6 sông Hương. Con sông xinh thay! ________7 trong như vắt, dòng phẳng như ________8, ít khi có sóng gợn, đi ________9 trên sông như đi trong hồ ________10. Huế không có con sông Hương, ________11 tưởng cái đẹp của xứ Huế ________12 đi mất nửa phần. Nhưng đã ________13 sông Hương lại có núi Ngự ________14, cái cảnh mới thực là toàn ________15. Ngự-bình không phải là một ________16 cao như núi Phù-sĩ nước ________17, Hương-giang không phải là một ________18 rộng nhỏ sông Hoàng-hà nước Tàu, nên nói rằng sông ấy, núi ấy làm hiểm-trở cho chốn đế-kinh thì e cũng là nói quá, nhưng sông ấy núi ấy thật là vẽ nên phong-cảnh xứ Huế vậy.

SAMPLE PAGES

Spanish Booklet C

LEE EL CUENTO. LLENA CADA ESPACIO CON LA PALABRA QUE MEJOR CORRESPONDA.

Cuento 14

Seguramente conoces bien los alrededores del lugar donde vives. Tú puedes ir a la tienda, _______ 1 parque, a la casa de un _______ 2; sabes donde están las varias escuelas, _______ 3 iglesias, los cines y muchos lugares _______ 4. Tú conoces las direcciones de esos _______ 5.

Para dirigirnos a un lugar lo _______ 6 necesitamos es saber donde está situado. _______ 7 el pueblo, sabes que es muy _______ 8 encontrar una dirección. Las calles tienen _______ 9 y las casas están numeradas. Cualquier _______ 10 puede ayudarnos. En el campo no _______ 11 tan fácil encontrar direcciones. No hay _______ 12 ni números. Son muy pocas las _______ 13 a quienes preguntar. En el medio _______ 14 mar o también en un avión _______ 15 todavía más difícil encontrar un lugar. _______ 16 si sabemos pedir ayuda al Sol _______ 17 encontrar una dirección determinada. Si has _______ 18 alguna vez la costa tú sabes _______ 19 hacia lo lejos se puede ver _______ 20 línea donde parecen unirse el cielo _______ 21 el agua. El nombre de esa _______ 22 es horizonte.

En el campo, si _______ 23 terreno es llano y si no _______ 24 árboles, también se ve la misma _______ 25 que ya llamamos el horizonte, donde _______ 26 unirse la tierra y el cielo. _______ 27 los pueblos sólo se ve el _______ 28 desde los lugares más altos.

Cada _______ 29, al amanecer, se ve el Sol _______ 30 bajo y casi pegado a la _______ 31, en un extremo del horizonte. Según _______ 32 las horas el Sol cambia de _______ 33. Al mediodía está bien alto, en _______ 34 del cielo. En la tarde, el _______ 35 se encuentra en el otro extremo _______ 36 horizonte, cada vez más bajo, hasta _______ 37 desaparece. Actualmente, no es el Sol, _______ 38 la Tierra quien se mueve. Gira _______ 39 sí misma, y como nosotros vamos _______ 40 de posición nos parece que el _______ 41 «nace» y se «pone». El punto _______ 42 donde podemos ver el Sol por _______ 43 mañanas se llama el este. El _______ 44 donde dejamos de ver el Sol _______ 45 los días se llama el oeste. _______ 46 puntos quedan opuestos el uno al _______ 47.

Colocándonos con los brazos en cruz, _______ 48, modo que la mano derecha muestre _______ 49 punto este, tendremos ahora a la _______ 50 el oeste. Situaremos otros dos puntos:

_______ 51 punto llamado norte, que nos queda _______ 52 frente.
Un punto llamado sur, que _______ 53 queda a la espalda.

Uniendo con _______ 54 línea el norte con el sur _______ 55 con otra línea el este con _______ 56 oeste tendremos una cruz con puntos _______ 57 los cuatro extremos: norte, sur, este _______ 58 oeste. El saber dónde están estos puntos es muy importante para conocer el mundo que habitamos.

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

2. Cloze Testing to Assess Reading Abilities in the Content Areas*

Have you ever wondered if a textbook would be a good reading for your CLDE children? Most of us would like to use textbooks with our children, but we can never be sure if the reading level will be appropriate or not. Here's how you can tell: use a cloze test. Cloze testing is by far one of the easiest and fastest methods yet devised for a teacher to measure reading difficulty.

a. How to Make a Cloze Test

1. Select a self-contained passage of approximately 150 to 200 words taken from one of the books or materials you wish to use with your students.

2. Go through the passage and systematically delete every seventh word leaving the **FIRST AND LAST SENTENCES INTACT**. Try to make exactly 25 blanks as this makes scoring much easier. **Important!** Do not **choose** the items to be deleted. Use **every** seventh word until you reach 25 blanks. In making a cloze test, skip proper names -- just go to the next word and continue making blanks as usual. Numerals should also be treated in this way.

3. Type up a ditto making a blank for every deleted word. A blank of ten typewriter spaces is a good size, e.g., __________. Now you have the test.

4. Use complete text material. Do NOT use Cloze techniques on isolated sentences, as deletions at the sentence level do not constitute a *pragmatic* measure of reading ability.

b. How to Administer a Cloze Test

1. Be sure to give clear instructions to the students. They are to fill in **one** word in each of the blanks. There is no one "proper word" or "correct word" that fits in each blank. Several alternatives may be perfectly satisfactory as long as they make sense. The

---

***Source**: The initial screening and diagonistic assessment of students with limited English proficiency, National Dissemination & Assessment Center, Los Angeles, CA (1980).

important thing to remember is that for each blank there is room for **only one word.**

2. It is sometimes wise to do a few easy sample sentences on the blackboard before students actually take the test. This gives the teacher a chance to clear up any confusion that might arise.

3. Give the test and allow as much time as is needed (within practical limits) for all students to complete it. Don't rush them.

c. How to Score the Test

1. Go through the tests and count up the number of words that are right. For CLDE children words are right if they are acceptable in the context. (Acceptable word scoring)

2. Now calculate the *percent of correct answers.* If you have 25 blanks you can do this quite easily by merely multiplying the number correct by 4.

3. Compare your percentages against the table on the next page to see if the book is appropriate.

It should be noted that these techniques have now been used with Czech, English, French, German, Japanese, Polish, Swedish, Thai, and Vietnamese individuals with equal success.

Percent of Correct Answers*	Comprehension Level	Appropriate for your Class?
above 53%	independent	**Yes**, it will make easy reading. It's especially appropriate for enjoyment, homework or independent activities.
between 44%-53%	instructional	**Yes**, it will make challenging reading for work within class.
below 44%	frustration	**No**, it is too difficult. It will probably discourage both you and your students.

---

* These percentages are taken from an article by J. Anderson, "Selecting a Suitable 'Reader': Procedures for Teachers to Assess Language Difficulty," RELC Journal, Vol. 2, pp. 35-42. It is probably unwise to interpret these percentages rigidly—you can shift them several points one way or the other.

Source:

the initial
screening and
diagnostic assessment
of students of
limited English proficiency
National Assessment & Dissemination Center,
Los Angeles, CA, 1980.

3. Construct a Cloze Test

ACTIVITY

- You have been given a third grade excerpt from a popular science textbook series in Spanish.
- Prepare a cloze test following the guidelines provided earlier (Section 2). Come as close to a 150 word excerpt as possible.
- If possible, administer and score the test.
- What are your results?

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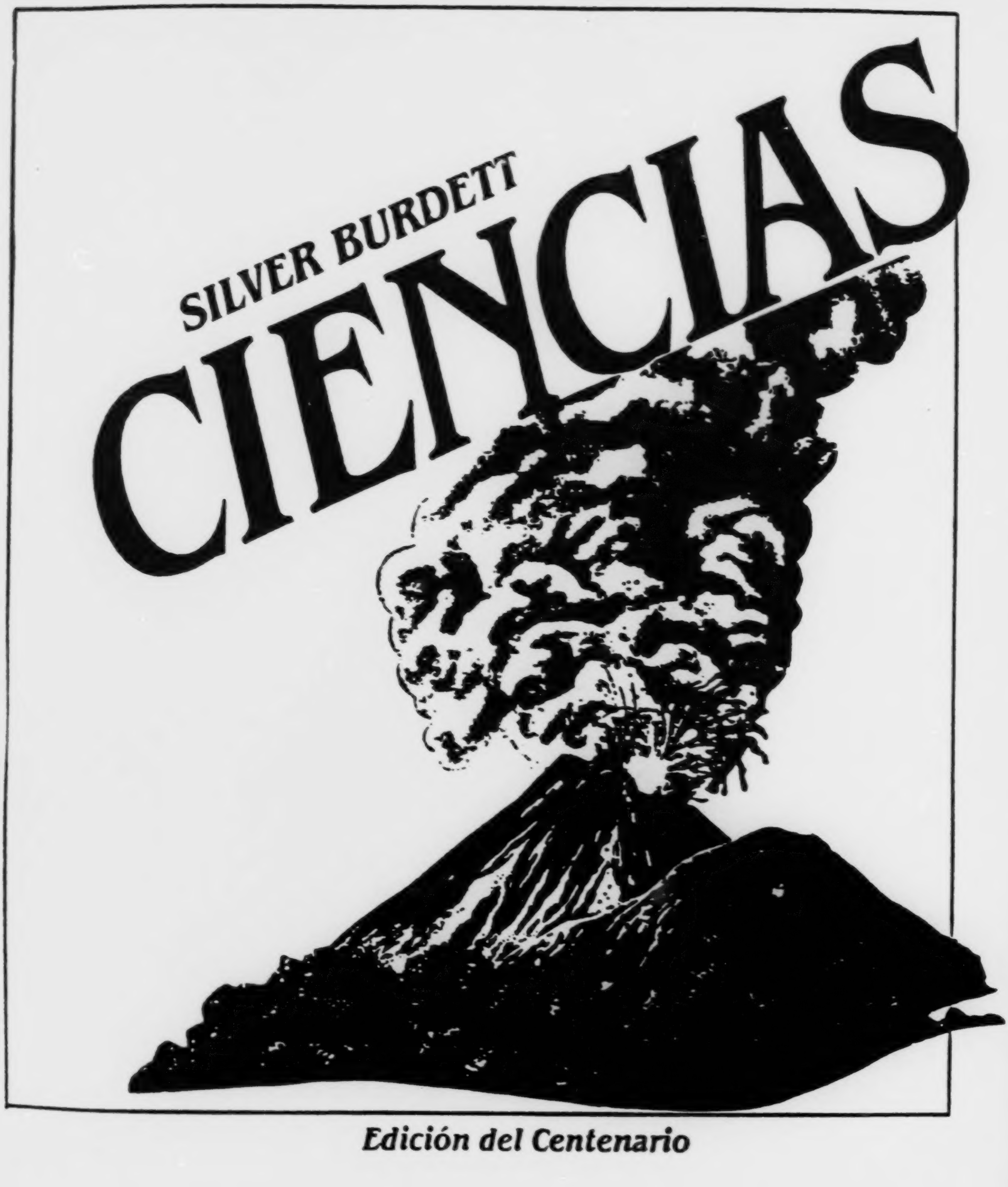

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EL CICLO DEL AGUA

¿Cuáles son las etapas del ciclo del agua?

¿Sabes que el agua siempre está en movimiento a tu alrededor? Se está evaporando de los ríos, de los arroyos y de los mares. Esta agua forma nubes al elevarse y enfriarse. Cuando las nubes se enfrían, se unen pequeñísimas gotas de agua que caen a tierra.

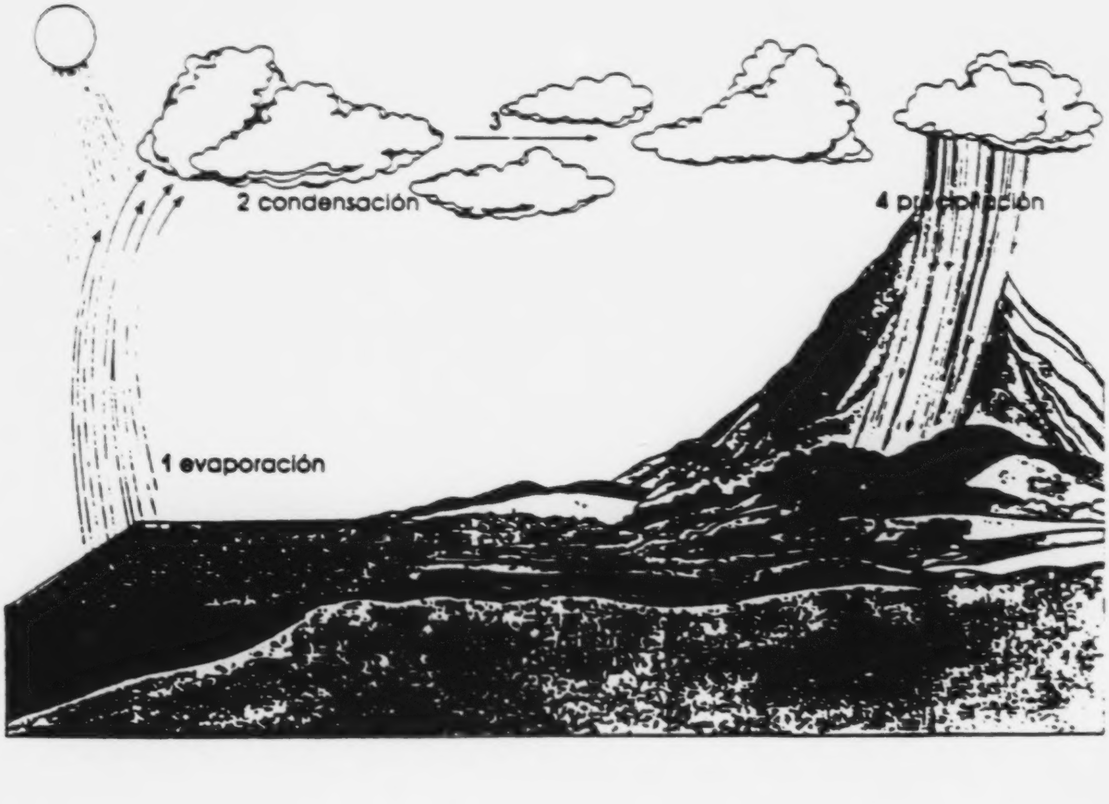
Cuando el agua cae como lluvia o nieve a tierra, ocurre una de tres cosas. (1) La mayor parte de la lluvia o la nieve se embebe en la tierra. (2) Otra parte se evapora en el aire. (3) Y otra parte más corre hacia los ríos y los arroyos. Con el tiempo, el agua de los ríos y arroyos va a dar a los lagos y a los mares. El agua en los lagos y los mares se evapora otra vez en el aire. La mayor parte de la Tierra está cubierta por agua de mar. Por esta razón, la mayor parte del agua se evapora del mar.

Después de un aguacero

El movimiento del agua de los mares al aire y de vuelta a los mares se llama el ciclo del agua. Un ciclo es algo que ocurre una y otra vez y sigue repitiéndose. Un ciclo siempre nos conduce al punto de partida. Las estaciones del año son otra clase de ciclo. Las estaciones se repiten año tras año. ¿Cuáles otros ciclos conoces?

Mira el dibujo, ayuda a comprender el ciclo del agua. Al leer, mira los pasos numerados del ciclo.

(1) La energía solar convierte el agua en vapor. (2) El vapor del agua se eleva, se enfría y se condensa para formar nubes. (3) El viento empuja las nubes sobre la tierra. (4) Las nubes chocan con aire frío y cae lluvia o nieve a tierra. (5) La mayor parte del agua que cae en la tierra vuelve a los mares. El agua que vuelve a los mares inicia de nuevo el ciclo.


2 condensación
3
4 precipitación
1 evaporación

Informal Assessment/Learning Styles and Social Skills

MULTISYSTEM

A. Learning Style Assessment

ACTIVITY

1. Assessing Learning Styles

In the Reference Manual, an article by Joy M. Reid: The Learning Style Preferences of ESL Students has been provided. On pages 110-111, an example of a *Perceptual Learning Style Preference Questionnaire* is given. This instrument is repeated on the next page for your use in this activity.

Please review it in small groups and then with your trainer. Decide which of the following learning factors apply to each item:

a. MODALITY / PERCEPTUAL PREFERENCE

- Visual
- Auditory
- Kinesthetic
- Tactile

b. CLASS STRUCTURE/SOCIAL INTERACTION PREFERENCE

- Group interaction
- Individual work/private work

c. COGNITIVE STYLE

- Active/doing
- Reflective/listening

APPENDIX

Perceptual Learning Style Preference Questionnaire

Name ______________ Age ________ Date ______________

Native Country ______________ Native Language ______________

Graduate ________ Undergraduate ________ Male ________ Female ________

How long did you study English in your country? ______________

How long have you been living in the U.S.? ______________

How long have you studied English in the U.S.? ______________

What is your major field? ______________

Most recent TOEFL score? ________ Date of TOEFL ________

Directions: People learn in many different ways. For example, some people learn primarily with their eyes (visual learners) or with their ears (auditory learners); some people prefer to learn by experience and/or by "hands-on" tasks (kinesthetic or tactile learners); some people learn better when they work alone, while others prefer to learn in groups.

This questionnaire has been designed to help you identify the way(s) you learn best—the way(s) you *prefer* to learn.

Read each statement on the following pages. Please respond to the statements AS THEY APPLY TO YOUR STUDY OF ENGLISH. Decide whether you agree or disagree with each statement. For example, if you *strongly agree*, mark:

strongly agree	agree	undecided	disagree	strongly disagree
X				

Please respond to each statement quickly, without too much thought. Try not to change your responses after you choose them. Please use a pen to mark your choices.

Questionnaire Statements

1. When the teacher tells me the instructions, I understand better.
2. I prefer to learn by doing something in class.
3. I get more work done when I work with others.
4. I learn more when I study with a group.
5. In class, I learn best when I work with others.
6. I learn better by reading what the teacher writes on the chalkboard.
7. When someone tells me how to do something in class, I learn it better.
8. When I do things in class, I learn better.
9. I remember things I have heard in class better than things I have read.
10. When I read instructions, I remember them better.
11. I learn more when I can make a model of something.
12. I understand better when I read instructions.
13. When I study alone, I remember things better.
14. I learn more when I make something for a class project.
15. I enjoy learning in class by doing experiments.
16. I learn better when I make drawings as I study.
17. I learn better in class when the teacher gives a lecture.
18. When I work alone, I learn better.
19. I understand things better in class when I participate in role playing.
20. I learn better in class when I listen to someone.
21. I enjoy working on an assignment with two or three classmates.
22. When I build something, I remember what I have learned better.
23. I prefer to study with others.
24. I learn better by reading than by listening to someone.
25. I enjoy making something for a class project.
26. I learn best in class when I can participate in related activities.
27. In class, I work better when I work alone.
28. I prefer working on projects by myself.
29. I learn more by reading textbooks than by listening to lectures.
30. I prefer to work by myself.

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Other authors have devised alternative systems for describing and assessing individual learning styles. References to the instruments they have developed to assess learning styles are provided in the table below.

2. Ways To Assess Style[1]

INVENTORIES

Direct self-report:

- The Learning Style Inventory-Primary Version (LSI-P) Grades Kg, 1 and 2 (Perrin, Learning Style Network) The Learning Style Inventory (LSI) Grades 3-4 and Grades 5-12 (Dunn, Dunn & Price, Price Systems, Inc.)
- Myers-Briggs Type Indicator (MBTI) (Myers-Briggs)
- Communicating Styles Survey (Mok)

Indirect self-report:

- Gregorc Style Delineator (Gregorc)
- Learning Style Inventory (Kolb, used by McCarthy)

TESTS

- Embedded Figures Test (Witkin)
- Swassing-Barbe Modality Index (Barbe and Swassing)

INTERVIEW

- Open-ended conversation
- With "Inventory" questions
- Writing one's own profile as a learner

OBSERVATION

- Checklists (Lawrence, Barbe and Swassing)
- Anecdotal records

ANALYSIS OF PRODUCTS OF LEARNING

- Achievements
- Errors (e.g., reading miscue-analysis)

Citations follow on next page.

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[1] Pat Burke-Guild and Stephen Garger Marching to different drummers (1985): p. 82. Reprinted with permission of the Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development and Pat Burke-Guild and Stephen Garger. Copyright © 1985 by the Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development. All rights reserved.

WAYS TO ASSESS STYLE: REFERENCES

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B. Sociometric Techniques for Assessing Social Skills

Sociometric techniques are utilized to determine the degree to which an individual is accepted in his/her peer group. Two types of sociometric techniques will be described in this unit: 1) the nomination technique, and 2) the self-report.

1. The Nomination Technique

Each child is required to choose one or more classmates with whom the child would like to play, study, or carry out any other activity. Respondents may be asked to nominate only one child or as many group members as they wish. The students may rate each member as first, second, or third choice. The nomination technique is particularly useful in determining the most popular students as well as the most isolated. It yields important information for grouping students. The information from a nominating technique is useful in devising a sociogram. A sociogram is a diagram that usually depicts the sociological structures of "liked" and "disliked" children within a classroom (Redl and Wattenberg, 1959). Sociograms can be very helpful to teachers in identifying the cliques in the classroom, the isolated or least-liked students, the most popular students, and the patterns of social acceptance or rejection among the students.

2. The Self-Report

This procedure is useful to determine information about a student's activities, likes and dislikes, and a student's feelings, anxieties and interests. Although personal interviews are an ideal way of conducting self-reports, less time-consuming methods such as checklists, ratings scales, questionnaires, and inventories are more often used (Gronland, 1976). The interest inventories and attitude surveys that follow are examples of self-report questionnaires. A self-report scale is composed of a series of questions that the children answer about themselves and helps give a measure of their interests, attitudes towards learning and/or self-concept. Prior to giving a self-report scale to a student, it is important that the student understand that the information s/he shares will be kept confidential and it is important that s/he answer truthfully. Teachers may prefer to use a commercially-developed self-report scale as is or develop their own scale with questions that are more appropriate to their given situations.

The surveys which follow are representative of the types of questionnaires and interview guides that might be used. The reader is cautioned that item content and language in which the interview is conducted should be individually determined to match each student being assessed.

3a. INTEREST SURVEY
(Primary School Level)

NAME ____

GRADE __________ TEACHER ____________________

1. What is the name of your favorite book?

2. Does your family read with you at home?

   Yes ______
   No ______

3. Do you like to read for fun?

   Yes ______
   No ______

   If yes, what do you like to read?

4. What games do you like to play for fun?

5. What do you like to watch on T.V.?

6. What do you like to do in the summer?

7. What do you like best in school?

8. What do you like to do after school?

9. What do you most like to do with your family?

3b. INTEREST SURVEY

(Intermediate and Secondary School Level)

NAME ______________________________

GRADE __________ TEACHER ____________________

1. What kind of things do you usually do after school?

2. What kinds of things to you enjoy doing on weekends?

3. What subjects do you like best in school?

4. What groups or clubs do you belong to?

5. What do you do during summer vacation?

6. What do you like to do with your family?

7. How much do you like to read for pleasure during your spare time?

very much	____
somewhat	____
not very much	____
not at all	____

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8. What is the name of the best book which you have ever read?

9. How many books have you read for fun within the last year?

10. Do you have any books in your home?

Yes ________
No ________

If yes, please name some:

11. Does your family get a daily newspaper?

Yes ________
No ________

A weekly newspaper?

Yes ________
No ________

If yes, what is the name of of the newspaper?

12. What kind of work would you like to do when you finish school?

3c. A Self-Assessment Scale

Sample items from Ira J. Gordon's Table 3-1 How I See Myself, Elementary Form

HOW I SEE MYSELF[1]

• Nothing gets me too mad	1 2 3 4 5	I get mad easily and explode
• I don't stay with things and finish them	1 2 3 4 5	I stay with something till I finish
• Teachers like me	1 2 3 4 5	Teachers don't like me
• I don't feel at ease, comfortable inside	1 2 3 4 5	I feel very at ease, comfortable inside
• I have trouble controlling my feelings	1 2 3 4 5	I can handle my feelings
• I do well in school work	1 2 3 4 5	I don't do well in school
• I write well	1 2 3 4 5	I don't write well
• I use my time well	1 2 3 4 5	I don't know how to plan my time
• School isn't interesting to me	1 2 3 4 5	School is very interesting
• I don't do arithmetic well	1 2 3 4 5	I'm real good in arithmetic
• I'm not as smart as the others	1 2 3 4 5	I'm smarter than most of the others
• I like school	1 2 3 4 5	I don't like school
• I don't read well	1 2 3 4 5	I read very well
• I don't learn new things easily	1 2 3 4 5	I learn new things easily

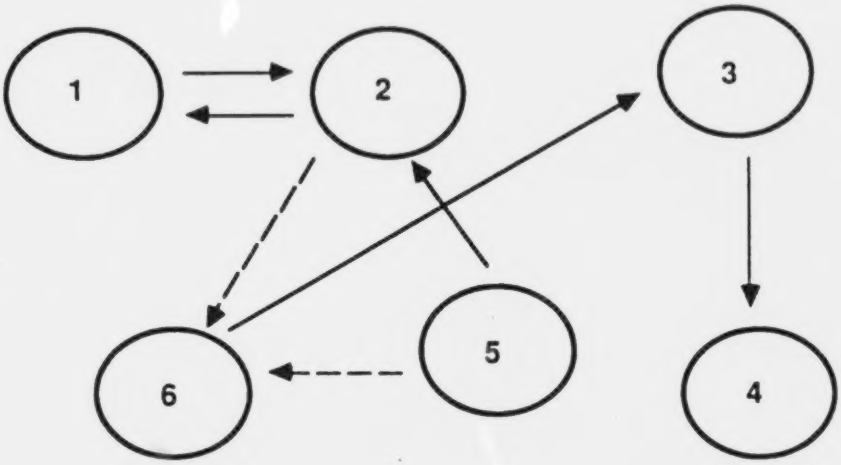
---

[1] Gordon, I. J. (1966). Studying the child in the school (pp. 56 & 57). New York: John Wiley & Sons, Inc. Copyright © 1966. Permission to reprint granted by Esther L. Gordon.

4. Constructing Sociograms

A very graphic means of understanding peer interaction is the *sociogram* (Gronlund, 1976; Gordon, 1966; Cartwright & Cartwright, 1974). The sociogram is a map of the classroom that is used to indicate the children with whom a particular student would prefer to play or study. Using appropriate questions and tabulating student choices, a teacher can generate a visual picture of the *social relations* existing in a given group. For example, when answering the two questions: 1) Who would you most like to work with? (represented by a solid line) and 2) Who would you least like to work with? (represented by a broken line), Student 2 was selected two times as being the student who was most desirable to work with. Student 6 was selected twice as least desirable to work with.

Example of a Sociogram



Information from a sociogram is very useful to teachers in making grouping decisions and in working towards improved interpersonal relations in the classroom.

5a. F.S.S. ATTITUDE SURVEY
(Primary School Level)

NAME ______________________________________

GRADE ______________ TEACHER ________________

DIRECTIONS: Encourage students to complete the F.S.S. Attitude Survey by checking yes or no for each statement or completing the sentences. Administer orally to any student who is unable to read.

	YES	NO
1. I am happy being me.		
2. I am happy in school.		
3. My friends in school like me.		
4. I am happy with my family.		
5. I do well in school.		
6. I always try to be good in school.		
7. I like my teacher(s).		
8. I like books.		
9. I like to play in groups.		
10. My family and I have fun together.		

11. I wish that I could ______________________________
____
____

12. The thing that embarrasses me the most is ____________

13. One thing that I don't like about school is ____________

14. The thing I am most afraid of in school is ____________

15. The thing that makes me feel most proud in school is ______

16. The thing that makes me very angry is ____________

17. My family is angriest with me when ____________

18. My family is proudest of me when ____________

19. I am most afraid when ____________

20. The subject that I like best in school is ____________

21. The subject that is hardest for me to learn in school is ____

22. My family thinks that school is ____________

Recommendations for Interpretation: Analyze student responses by grouping the questions into *family*, *school*, and *self* categories.

A. *Family Category* - Questions #4, 10, 17, 18, 22, reflect the student's attitude towards and his/her feelings about his/her family.

B. *School Category* - Questions #2, 3, 5, 6, 7, 8, 13, 14, 15, 20, 21 indicate the student's attitude toward school and reflect feelings about him/herself in the school environment.

C. *Self Category* - Questions #1, 9, 11, 12, 16, 19, provide information about the student's feelings about him/herself.

Summarize the student's attitudes in each of these categories.

Source: Items #11-22 were adapted from The Incomplete Sentences Test, Center for Applied Research in Education, Inc., 1978.

5b. F.S.S. (FAMILY, SCHOOL, AND SELF) ATTITUDE SURVEY

(Intermediate and Secondary School Level)

NAME ______________________________

GRADE ____________ TEACHER ____________

DIRECTIONS: Encourage each student to individually complete the F.S.S. Attitude Survey by checking off yes or no for each of the twenty-three statements.

YES NO

1. I like being me.
2. I'm happy in school.
3. I'm often sorry for the things I do.
4. I like to learn in class.
5. I have many friends in school.
6. I get along well with my family.
7. I feel my parents are too strict.
8. I do not like being in school.
9. I do not like doing things with my family.
10. I am proud of my family.
11. I am afraid to have the teacher call on me in class.
12. I am ashamed of my family.
13. I usually feel good.

YES NO

14. I get good grades in school.

15. Students in my class generally like me.

16. My family loves me.

17. I enjoy playing sports in school.

18. My family does not care about what I think.

19. I feel people listen to me.

20. I participate in after-school activities and clubs.

21. My family and I spend a lot of time together.

22. I feel most people are better than I am.

23. I always try to do my best.

Recommendations for Interpretation: Analyze student responses by grouping the responses into family, school, and self categories.

A. *Family Category* - Questions #6, 7, 9, 10, 12, 16, 18, 21, reflect the student's attitude towards and his/her feelings about his/her family.

B. *School Category* - Questions #2, 4, 5, 8, 11, 14 15, 17, 20, indicate the students attitude toward school and reflect feelings about him/herself in the school environment.

C. *Self Category* - Questions #1, 3, 13, 19, 22, 23, provide information about the student's feelings about him/herself.

Summarize the student's attitude in each of these categories.

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MULTISYSTEM

CULTURALLY AND LINGUISTICALLY APPROPRIATE PROGRAMMING

Intent of the Module

This module is designed to assist service providers in planning culturally and linguistically appropriate instructional programs for exceptional language minority students. The four areas treated in this module: 1) Using informal assessment results to design appropriate instructional programs, 2) designing culturally appropriate learning environments, 3) selecting oral language programs and materials, and 4) selecting literacy programs and materials were selected because the development of appropriate intervention programs depend on these essential processes. An emphasis is placed on model planning sequences that direct service providers can follow as they design intervention programs for CLDE students.

Culturally and Linguistically Appropriate Programming/Introduction

MULTISYSTEM

A. Introduction: Using Informal Assessment Results to Design Culturally and Linguistically Appropriate Instructional Programs

The results of the ecological assessment should provide us with the following information around which an appropriate instructional program can be planned:

- **A PROFILE OF STUDENT ABILITIES, INCLUDING:**
  - Language use patterns (home/school)
  - Oral language proficiency (stage/skills)
  - Reading and writing proficiency (stage/skills)
  - Academic achievement levels (math/content area reading skills)
  - Social skills/learning style (attitudes, interests, self-concept, interaction patterns)
- **A DESCRIPTION OF RELEVANT HOME CHARACTERISTICS INCLUDING:**
  - Language use pattern of family members
  - Literacy abilities and academic preparation of parents/guardians
  - Attitudes of parents towards each language and,
- **ACCESS TO LEARNING/ACADEMIC OPPORTUNITIES**
  - Previous school experiences
  - A description of the current classroom environment

By reorganizing the various sections of the *Sample Individual Profile* that was presented in the first module, participants will see that considerable information can be collected to guide instructional planning for a given CLDE student.

The sections which follow demonstrate how to combine the results of informal assessment procedures to make particular instructional decisions for CLDE students.

1. Planning Language Use in Instruction

A first area to consider in planning intervention is language use in instruction. In cases where the service provider has the ability to instruct the student in either the native or the second language, the provider should let informal assessment results determine whether to: 1) instruct the student mostly in the native language, 2) instruct the student mostly in the second language, or 3) provide instruction in both languages about equally. This decision should be based on information which describes the support available for each language in the child's larger environment.

In cases where native language instruction is not possible, language use information collected will aid the service provider in understanding how much support is currently available outside the school environment in each language. This can aid in planning appropriate reinforcement and extension activites both in and out of school.

For each section of student data collected regarding language usage (left side of page), results should be summarized (right side of page). After reviewing all the data, an outcome statement should be written regarding optimal language use in instruction for the target student.

a. Home Language Use

1 ____________ First language learned by student

2 ____________ Language most frequently used by student at home.

3 ____________ Language most frequently used by parents with student.

4 ____________ Language most frequently used by adults with each other at home

5 ____________ Language most frequently used by student with siblings

Select one: [x]

Only Native Language? ______
Mostly Native Language? ____
Only English? ________
Mostly English? ________
Both Equally? ________

b. Observation of Relative Language Usage

Observer(s): ________________________ Dates of Observation: ____________

Content	Only English	Mostly English	Equal Mixture	Mostly L_1	Only L_1
1. Informal w/peers (Playground, cafeteria, bus, etc.)					
2. Informal w/ adults (hallways, play areas, cafeteria, off-campus)					
3. Formal w/ peers (classroom, lab, library, etc.)					
4. Formal w/ adults (classroom, lab, office, etc.)					
5. With Bilingual individuals (students, teachers, etc.)					

Select one [x]

Only Native Language? ____________
Mostly Native Language? ____________
Only English? ____________
Mostly English? ____________
Both Equally? ____________

c. Observation of Relative Literacy Activity

	N/A or D.K.	Only English	Only L1	Mostly English	Mostly L1	Some in Both	Not in Either
1. Child's parents/guardians read (functionally literate or beyond)							
2. Books, magazines, present in home							
3. Child read to by parents or other family members							
4. Formal reading instruction is provided							
5. Child reads for specific academic purposes							
6. Child reads for pleasure							

Select one: [x]

Only Native Language? ____________
Mostly Native Language? ____________
Only English? ____________
Mostly English? ____________
Both Equally? ____________

Outcome: *What does the data suggest about optimal language use in instruction:* ____

____

____

____

____

____

2. Language Preference

In addition to understanding actual language use patterns, it is important to consider the student's and the parents' preferences about language use in instruction. Based on this information, we may or may not revise our plan for language use in instruction stated above. Even if we chose not to revise the language use plan, we will want to be aware of parent and student attitudes towards each language and culture to plan a responsive, proactive program and to shape a supportive attitudinal climate for the program.

Observer: ________ **Date:** ________

Student	+	0	–
1. L_1 Usage			
2. L_2 Usage			
3. L_1 Literacy			
4. L_2 Literacy			
5. L_1 Culture			
6. L_2 Culture			
7. Bilingual Instruction			

Observer: ________ **Date:** ________

Parents	+	0	–
1. L_1 Usage			
2. L_2 Usage			
3. L_1 Literacy			
4. L_2 Literacy			
5. L_1 Culture			
6. L_2 Culture			
7. Bilingual Instruction			

Select one: [x]

Student Preference:

Native Language ________
English ________
Both Equally ________
No Preference ________

Select one: [x]

Parent(s) Preference:

Native Language ________
English ________
Both Equally ________
No Preference ________

Implications for Instruction: ________________________________

____

____

____

____

3. Matching Teaching Approaches to the Student's Learning Style

Observed Modality Preference (Reid):

Observed Environmental Preferences (Dunn)*:

Implications for Instruction:

4. Planning the Language Development Program

A central instructional concern with culturally and linguistically diverse exceptional students is their language development program. In order to plan appropriate oral language and literacy (reading/writing) development programs, we need to summarize the data collected concerning their current **stage** of development and **abilities** by specific language area (pronunciation, vocabulary, grammar, comprehension, etc.).

* Complete this section after the next unit in this module on *Learning Environment*.

This section is designed to summarize what we now know about:

a. Primary Language Development

Stage Analysis:

Stage of Primary Language Development

	I Preparatory	II Early	III Emergent	IV Intermediate/ Transitional	V Age- Appropriate
Oral					
Reading					
Writing					
(Spelling)					

L_1 Oral Language Stage: ____

L_1 Reading Stage: (if known) ____

L_1 Writing Stage: ____

Skills Analysis:

Language Proficiency Test Results (L/S/R/W)

Date	Language	Technique/ Instrument	Area(s) Assessed	Results

Oral Language skill areas targeted for intervention

- ☐ Pronunciation
- ☐ Grammer
- ☐ Vocabulary
- ☐ Fluency
- ☐ Comprehension

Writing Skill areas targeted for intervention:

- ☐ organization
- ☐ vocabulary
- ☐ Language Use (Grammer)
- ☐ Mechanics (Spelling, Punctuation, Capitalization, Diacritical Marks)

Reading Skill targeted for intervention:

- ☐ Word Recognition/
- ☐ Prediction
- ☐ Reading Comprehension
- ☐ Reading Rate

Outcome:

Primary language instructional goals by area: ____________________

____

____

____

This section is designed to summarize what we now know about:

b. Second Language Development

Stage Analysis:

Stage of Second Language Development

	I Preparatory	II Early	III Emergent	IV Intermediate/ Transitional	V Age-Appropriate
Oral					
Reading					
Writing					
(Spelling)					

L_2 Oral Language Stage ____

L_2 Reading Stage: (if known) ____

L_2 Writing Stage: ____

Skills Analysis:

Language Proficiency Test Results (L/S/R/W)

Date	Language	Technique/ Instrument	Area(s) Assessed	Results

Oral Language skill areas targeted for intervention

[ ] Pronunciation
[ ] Grammar
[ ] Vocabulary
[ ] Fluency
[ ] Comprehension

Writing Skill areas targeted for intervention

[ ] organization
[ ] vocabulary
[ ] Language Use (Grammar)
[ ] Mechanics (Spelling, Punctuation, Capitalization)

Reading Skill targeted for intervention

[ ] Word Recognition
[ ] Prediction
[ ] Reading Comprehension
[ ] Reading Rate

Outcome:

Second language instructional goals by area: ______________________________

____

____

____

5. Planning the Academic Program

Two types of diagnostic data may be available to assist in identifying instructional levels in reading and mathematics: Norm-referenced test results and criterion-referenced tests. In the case of norm-referenced tests, the *grade level* at which the student is functioning in reading and math will be established. In the case of criterion-referenced tests, in addition to grade level abilities, individual instructional objectives can be established. Informal assessment procedures can be used to supplement formal test data. Suggestions for summarizing this information are given below:

a. Norm-Referenced Test Results

English: ______________________________

pre/post

Subject	Instrument	R. S.	%ile	G.E.	Date
Language					
Reading					
Math					

Grade/Functional	**Level**	
	L1	L2
Language	____	____
Reading	____	____
Math	____	____

Other Language: _________________________

pre/post

Subject	Instrument	R. S.	%ile	G.E.	Date
Language					
Reading					
Math					

Other: __________________________

b. Criterion-Referenced Test Results (Reading/Math)

Objectives Identified: ____

____

____

____

Results of Observations Conducted/Analysis of Work Samples: ______

Instructional goals by academic area: ______

6. Planning for Social Skills/Personal Development

A final area to be considered in planning intervention is personal and social skills development. Direct service providers should systematically consider the motivation, interests, interaction patterns, self-concept, and social skills of students through observation, checklists, rating scales, and sociometric techniques. This section is provided to summarize data collected on these important areas.

List the names of any checklists, rating scales, or observational guides used: ______

Results: ______________________________

Student observation/interview (re: interests, interactions, motivation, attitudes) by: ____________ Date: ________

Observations/Reactions: ______________________________

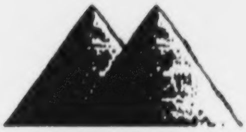
Check any areas for which Intervention is required

☐ Motivation to learn
☐ Social Skills (e. g. cooperation, punctuality)
☐ Self-Concept
☐ Peer Interactions

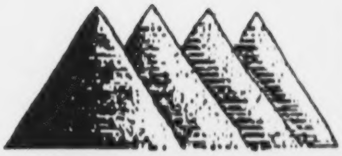
Parent Interview (re: activities, observed language usage, attitudes) by: ____________ Date: ________

Observations/Reactions: ______________________________

Principal goals based on all of the above: ______________________________



Culturally and Linguistically Appropriate Programming/Learning Environment



MULTISYSTEM

A. Differences in Perceptual Styles and How They are Influenced by Culture

In the previous module, the Perceptual Learning Style Preference Questionnaire by Joy Reid was introduced. It is designed to consider modality preferences; whether students are primarily visual, auditory, kinesthetic or tactile learners. Consideration of perceptual style is a common means of distinguishing among learners, and perceptual preferences are influenced by culture, as recent cross-cultural studies demonstrate (Jaiali, F.A., 1989; Sims, J.E., 1988). In addition to considering modality strengths, the concept of perceptual style encompasses the construct of field dependence/independence, a term first used by Witkin et al. (1977).

Field independence refers to the ability of an individual to perceive specific details within a pattern as discrete entities. A person with a field independent perceptual style is able to see details apart from the whole. In contrast, a person with a field dependent perceptual style is able to see details only in relation to the whole. This individual is unable to make critical discriminations among competing perceptual stimuli. Research in the perceptual area shows that a student's perceptual style is influenced by his/her culture and surrounding environment (Davey, 1976). For example, children from hunting societies are much more apt to focus on details and have a greater tendency to be field independent in perceptual style.

Although the concept of field independence/dependence was initiated by psychologist Witkin in relation to his research on perceptual styles, today the terms are broadly applied to describe different cognitive styles among learners. As applied to cognitive style, field independent learners are considered to be those learners who have analytical skills that are very useful in mainstream learning environments. In contrast, field dependent learners are those students who tend to use relational over analytical strategies. Such learners may require demonstrations along with clear directions in order to work more successfully in classrooms favoring an analytical style.

The charts which follow contrast the differences between field dependent and field independent learners and the differences between teachers who exhibit field dependent vs. field independent teaching styles. However, it is important that participants understand the importance of interpreting these characteristics *across a continuum* and *within particular situations and contexts.* For example, a student or teacher may exhibit field dependent characteristics, but the learner's apparent field dependence should be interpreted as existing as a function of the particular context and time frame. Across contexts and time frames, most learners and teachers will exhibit characteristics of both styles, even though one style may tend to predominate. A careful analysis of each individual's perceptual style is recommended.

HOW STUDENTS LEARN

Field Dependence	Field Independence
Perceive globally	Perceive analytically
Experience in a global fashion, adhere to structures as given	Experience in an articulated fashion, impose structure or restrictions
Make broad general distinctions among concepts, see relationships	Make specific concept distinctions, see little overlap
Have a social orientation to the world	Have an impersonal orientation to the world
Learn material with social content best	Learn social material only as an intentional task
Attend best to material relevant to own experience	Interested in new concepts for their own sake
Seek externally-defined goals and reinforcements	Have self-defined goals and reinforcements
Want organization to be provided	Can self-structure situations
More affected by criticism	Less affected by criticism
Use spectator approach to concept attainment	Use hypothesis testing approach to attain concepts

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HOW TEACHERS TEACH

Field Dependence	Field Independence
Strong in establishing a warm and personal learning environment; emphasize personal aspects of instruction	Strong in organizing and guiding student learning, emphasize cognitive aspect of instruction
Prefer teaching situations that allow interaction and discussion with students	Prefer impersonal teaching methods such as lecture and problem-solving
Use questions to check on student learning following instruction; More student-centered	Use questions to introduce topics and following student answers; More teacher-centered
Provide less feedback, avoid negative evaluation	Give specific corrective feedback, use negative evaluation

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B. Differences in Cognitive Style and How They Affect Learning

Academically-successful students often display an analytical, reflective cognitive style (Kagan, 1966; Mosley and Spicker, 1975). These students are able to critically and methodically analyze information using a rational step-by-step approach. In contrast, students with impulsive cognitive styles tend to learn through more of a trial and error approach and do not apply methodical sequential thinking. They are more intuitive in their thinking. Although students with impulsive cognitive styles do not differ with regard to intelligence from students who are reflective thinkers; their impulsive styles do cause them difficulty in achieving in traditional American classrooms, where both field independent perceptual styles and reflective, analytical cognitive styles are often required of students.

Childbearing practices within different cultural groups, greatly influence both perceptual and cognitive styles, causing different cultural groups to have tendencies in one direction or the other. For example, in their research, Ramirez and Castañeda (1974), found the majority of Mexican-American children studied demonstrated a field-sensitive cognitive style. Field-sensitive students perceive the world as a whole and are tuned into all aspects of the situation. For these students, the context of an event is inseparable from the context and personal relationships and modelling are important to learning. In contrast, according to Ramirez and Castañeda (1974), students with a field independent style of learning can separate elements of a situation or context and consider them independent of the context.

As with any classification, it is important to *use these classifications on a continuum*. Children will often respond with a variety of learning styles **according to the situation.** Although no one learns exclusively one way or another, there are tendencies for students of particular cultures to display behavior that is predominantly 1) impulsive, global, and relational *or* 2) detailed, methodical and reflective (Almanza & Mosley, 1980).

Cognitive styles are very important in enhancing teaching and learning. Teachers need to be aware of the style demands they are placing on their students in order for them to be able to learn and perform successfully. Time and attention need to be given to teaching students flexibility in using both cognitive styles. At the same time, teachers must extend beyond their own preferred teaching style whether it be detailed and methodical, *or* global, relational, and open-ended and flexibly use both styles in order to reach a greater number of students.

C. Interactional Style Differences and Cultural Influences

Students display different interactional styles in the classroom. Some students prefer to work alone rather than in cooperation with others and display an independent interactional style. In contrast, other students enjoy working in groups and are very socially-directed in their approach to learning.

The ways in which students interact with each other is culturally-determined. Many culturally and linguistically diverse students who have been raised in a cooperative environment and who have experienced group-oriented activities, prefer to work cooperatively with others in the classroom. In many cases, these students prefer not to be placed in competitive situations. Conversely, there are students who prefer competition. Many middle class American students who have been reared in a more competitive home and societal environment choose to work in competitive classroom situations. Students who know how to compete and like competing have a definite advantage in American classroom environments.

A third way in which culture influences a students' ways of interacting with others is in whether or not the student is able to verbally interact with adults or chooses to restrict verbal interactions to other students. Students who are raised in societies where children are seen but not heard in the presence of adults are conditioned not to initiate conversation with adults. When placed in everyday situations in American classrooms, these children experience a great deal of difficulty because they are expected to initiate verbal interactions with adults, and are often evaluated by their ability to communicate with adults. It is important for teachers to understand how to require verbalizations from their students, and to appreciate the diversity of successful interactional styles that exist among students.

D. Learning Style Preferences

The following analysis of learning styles was constructed by Rita and Kenneth Dunn. They believe that in order to structure appropriate learning environments for individual students, teachers must account for each student's ***environmental, emotional, social*** and ***physical*** needs. Their model enumerates eighteen elements for teachers to consider in designing productive learning environments for students[1] The Dunn & Dunn model incorporates perceptual and interactional style preferences among other important ecological conditions.

---

[1] Note: The current Dunn & Dunn model incorporates 21 elements, as the area of *Psychological Needs* was recently added (with three elements: analytical/global; cerebral preference; reflective/impulsive). The earlier model with 18 elements is presented here since it parallels available assessment devices that correspond to the Dunn & Dunn model.

RITA and KENNETH DUNN'S LEARNING STYLE ELEMENTS

Stimuli	Elements					
Environmental	Sound	Light	Temperature	Design		
Emotional	Motivation	Persistence	Responsibility	Structure		
Sociological	Peers	Self	Pair	Team	Adult	Varied
Physical	Perceptual	Intake	Time	Mobility		

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There are three assessment instruments designed to assess learning style according to the Dunn's model. They include:

1). The Learning Style Inventory Primary Version (LSI-P)
(Kg, I & 2)
Learning Styles Network, St. John's University, Grand Central and Utopia Parkways, Jamaica, NY, 11239--(718) 990-6161, ext. 6412

2). The Learning Style Inventory (LSI) Grades 3 & 4
3). The Learning Style Inventory (LSI) Grades 5-12
Price Systems, Inc., Box 1818 Lawrence, KS 66044
(913) 843-7892.

Spanish directions are available. Teachers who assess their students' learning styles according to the LSI can utilize the results in planning responsive programs for their students according to the dimensions analyzed.

The Resource Manual includes an introduction to this system through the article: "The Sum and Substance of Learning Styles" written by Rita Dunn (See Module 1, Resource Manual).

E. Overall Effects of Cultural Variations on Learning

Cultural variations in students' values, ways of perceiving, cognitive styles and interactional styles greatly affect learning. The degree to which a student is able to perceive new information depends upon his past experience and success with the method of presentation used. For example, a highly skilled visual learner taught new material visually will experience more success with the material than if the same material were only presented orally.

Finding the right match between teaching and learning styles will influence the amount and type of content learned. A child who prefers to work cooperatively in groups has a greater possibility of succeeding in a content area s/he finds difficult if that content is presented in a comfortable, cooperative group setting.

Students differ in the amount of content they are able to process at one time, in their rate of learning, how they learn, and in their retention of newly-introduced concepts. The rate and amount of learning can be altered favorably on behalf of individual students if attention is given to matching teaching and learning styles and teaching students to become skillful and flexible in adapting to perceptual, cognitive, and interactional styles other than those they currently favor.

The chart that follows summarizes the various ways researchers have conceptualized style differences among learners and reminds us of the many alternatives available in designing instructional environments to enhance student success.

SOME EXAMPLES OF STYLE CHARACTERISTICS

Category	Characteristics*	Researchers
COGNITION Perceiving, finding out, getting information	sensing/intuition	Jung, Myers-Briggs, Mok Keirsey and Bates
	field dependent/field independent; abstract/concrete	Witkin Gregorc, Kolb and McCarthy
	visual, auditory, kinesthetic, tactile	Barbe and Swassing, Dunn and Dunn
CONCEPTUALIZATION thinking, forming ideas, processing, memory	extrovert/introvert	Jung, Myers-Briggs, Keirsey and Bates
	reflective observation/active experimentation	Kolb and McCarthy
	random/sequential	Gregorc
AFFECT feelings, emotional response, motivation, values, judgements	feeler/thinker	Jung, Myers-Briggs, Mok, Keirsey and Bates
	effect of temperature, light, food, time of day, sound, design	Dunn and Dunn
BEHAVIOR		

manifestations of all of the above-mentioned characteristics

*Characteristics separated by a slash (/) indicate bipolar or opposite traits.

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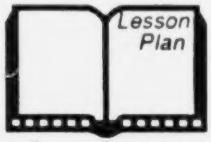
F. ACTIVITY:



A Plan for Victor

Planning for Victor's Learning Style

Victor's Learning Style Preference

According to Dunn and Dunn's Learning Style Elements

STIMULI	ELEMENTS					
Environmental	Sound	Light	Temperature	Design *Formal*		
Emotional	Motivation *Teacher Adult*	Persistence	Responsibility	Structure *Needs Little*		
Sociological	Peers	Self	Pair	Team	Adult	Varied
Physical	Perception *Tactual Visual*	Intake *Does Not Require*	Time	Mobility		

1. Victor's teacher administered the Learning Style Inventory: Primary Version (Perrin, 1983) to Victor, and obtained the results given above. Study the chart provided which highlights the learning style elements which are important to Victor.

2. For each element, explain what would you do to accommodate Victor's needs in the classroom. As a starting point, use the suggestions provided on the three-page excerpt which follows entitled Prescriptions Based on Individual Responses to the LSI-P by Janet Perrin, author of the instrument.

Design:

Intake:

Structure:

Sociological:

Responsibility & Persistence:

Motivation:

Perception:

Prescriptions Based on Individual Responses to the LSI:P

1. SOUND

    a) **Not Acceptable**
    Provide quiet work areas such as carrels; design a section of the classroom for a magic carpet or quiet garden area where absolute quiet is the rule (use rugs, pillows, stuffed furniture and other sound absorbers).*

    b) **Acceptable**
    Establish small-group areas where students may work and talk.

2. LIGHT

    a) **Low**
    Establish areas where lights can be dimmed or shades drawn; use curtains, shaded lamps or tissue paper over lights or windows to diffuse the light.

    b) **Bright**
    Provide extra lamps, allow students to work near the windows.

3. TEMPERATURE

    a) **Cool**
    Permit students to work in the cooler sections of the room (near an open door, next to the windows if not sunny).

    b) **Warm**
    Permit students to work in the warmer sections of the room (warmest area is usually the center of the room); allow the wearing of sweaters or extra clothing.

4. DESIGN

    a) **Formal**
    Provide desks and chairs placed in rows.

    b) **Informal**
    Permit students to work in the magic carpet area (see Sound, Not Acceptable) lying on a rug or in a comfortable chair.

5. SOCIOLOGICAL

    a) **Alone**
    Provide carrels; place desk and chair away from others; assign multisensory instructional packages, song boards, independent contract activities, programmed learning sequences.

    b) **Adult**
    Provide frequent teacher interaction and direction; place the students' desks near the teacher; assign at-home projects which involve the parents or other adults.

    c) **Peers**
    Allow students to work in pairs; use small group activities; encourage peer interaction; provide small group work areas.

6. STRUCTURE

    a) **Needs**
    Provide clear simple objectives; give directions visually and auditorially (repeat if necessary); limit choices; provide immediate feedback; praise the student frequently; check work while the student is working and/or immediately after; assign one page of work or project at a time instead of several; establish reasonable time limits; assign programmed learning sequences, multisensory instructional packages; structured contracts, song boards.

For complete details on redesigning a classroom to accommodate learning styles see: Teaching Students Through Their Individual Learning Styles; **Dunn and Dunn, Prentice Hall, 1978**

b) **Needs Little**

Permit choices and options; establish objectives with the student, provide feedback and praise when necessary; assign several projects at one time; permit the student to choose what to do first, next, etc.; establish flexible time limits; assign contracts with several activity alternatives.

7. RESPONSIBILITY and PERSISTENCE

a) **Is Not**

Provide short term assignments; check work often; provide frequent feedback, provide high interest materials; assign multisensory instructional packages.

b) **Is**

Permit choices and options; permit self-pacing and self-checking; provide feedback as needed, assign contracts with wide choice of activity alternatives.

8. MOTIVATION

a) **Teacher Motivated**

Allow students to work near the teacher; provide frequent teacher interaction and feedback, assign teacher made materials, provide encouragement and praise often.

b) **Adult Motivated**

Assign at-home projects which will involve parents; communicate often with parents regarding the student's progress; permit multisensory instructional packages, song boards and other resources to be taken home.

c. **Self Motivated**

Provide a variety of learning resources, permit student initiated projects and activities, provide praise and encouragement when needed, permit self-pacing and self-checking, provide contracts on a variety of topics.

d) **Unmotivated**

Establish specific, attainable goals based on ability and level; provide frequent praise and feedback; assign projects and activities based on student interest; keep assignments brief, provide interesting and varied learning resources; assign multisensory instructional packages.

9. PERCEPTION

a) **Visual**

Provide films, filmstrips, books with pictures; allow students to work in the media center and library, encourage visual activities, use visuals (transparencies, chalkboard, charts) when lecturing; emphasize whole word and language experience approaches to reading; assign contract activity packages, high interest multisensory instructional packages, programmed learning sequences (if structure is needed).

b) **Auditory**

Provide tapes, records, tape recorded books; allow students to work in the media center; permit tape recorded book reports; use discussion and lecture methods; emphasize phonics and linguistic reading approaches, assign Contract Activity Packages, and resources accompanied by tapes.

c) **Tactual**

Provide manipulative learning materials such as puzzles, sand paper letters and numerals, lotto games; use art projects in reading, math, and social studies; permit frequent use of the chalkboard, flannel board, magnetic board, typewriter, encourage tracing of letters and words; encourage students to write their own stories; assign multisensory instructional packages and song boards; permit frequent use of sand table and water table.

d) **Kinesthetic**

Provide large muscle learning materials such as floor puzzles, large blocks, step-on number lines and alphabet squares; provide cooking and building experiences; encourage concrete experiences such as trips, walks, and community projects; permit play acting, role playing, and puppet shows; assign multisensory instructional packages.

10. INTAKE

a) **Does Not Require**
Permit students to choose their own snack time if they wish

b) **Requires**
Make available nutritious snacks such as fruit, raw vegetables, nuts, sunflower seeds, permit frequent snack breaks during the day

11. MOBILITY

a) **Does Not Require**
Provide uninterrupted work periods, encourage students to gather learning resources before starting an activity or project

b) **Requires**
Allow frequent breaks during work periods, permit students to work at various learning stations and interest centers

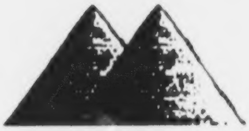
12. TIME

a) **Morning**
Assign morning reading and math groups; administer tests in the morning, encourage homework to be done in the morning.

b) **Afternoon**
Assign afternoon reading and math groups; administer tests in the afternoon.

c) **Evening**
Assign projects and activities to be completed at home.

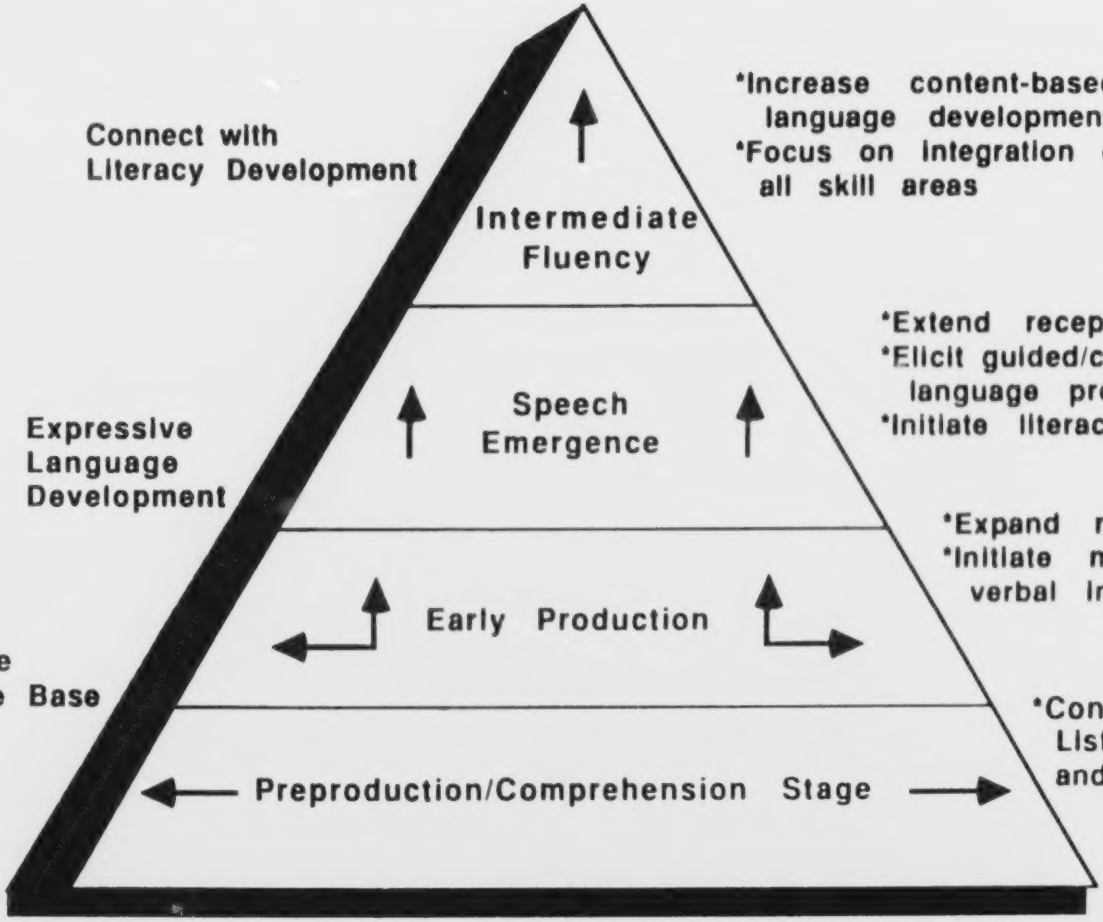
Source: Perrin, J. (1983). Learning style inventory: Primary version: Manual for administration, interpretation and teaching suggestions. Malverne, NY: Telecki Publishing Services. **Reprinted by permission.**



Culturally and Linguistically Appropriate Programming/Oral Language Programs and Materials

MULTISYSTEM

A. ORAL LANGUAGE INSTRUCTIONAL SEQUENCE



Connect with Literacy Development

Intermediate Fluency

- *Increase content-based language development
- *Focus on integration of all skill areas

Expressive Language Development

Speech Emergence

- *Extend receptive language
- *Elicit guided/controlled language production
- *Initiate literacy activity

Early Production

- *Expand receptive vocabulary
- *Initiate meaningful verbal interactions

Receptive Language Base

Preproduction/Comprehension Stage

- *Concentrate on: Listening comprehension and receptive vocabulary

Cloud, 1987

Lesson Plan

1. ACTIVITY: Planning the Primary Oral Language Program (L_1)

A Plan for Victor

The Resource Specialist who works with Victor in Spanish assessing comprehension and expressive language development using the story retelling technique, using a story from the book Partimos en Addison-Wesley's Spanish Basal Reading Series Hagamos Caminos

1. Watch the session. What strategies does Victor use to communicate?

2. What stage of acquisition is Victor currently at in the primary language?

3. What methods are preferred at this stage?

4. What skill areas require special attention? (production, grammar, vocabulary, fluency, comprehension)

5. What other learning characteristics need to be accounted for in Victor's native language program?

6. What problems did you notice through Victor's performance with the use of the story retelling technique to collect a language sample?

Lesson Plan

A Plan for Victor

2. ACTIVITY: Planning the English Oral Language Program (ESL)

Victor's ESL Resource Specialist administered Santillana's **Rainbow Collection/Assessment Test** (#4 Street Scene), *a picture card and structured questioning technique to determine Victor's stage of proficiency in English*

1. Could Victor respond:

YES	NO	
☐	☐	At the Preproduction Level?
☐	☐	At the Early Production Level?
☐	☐	At the Speech Emergence Level?

2. Based on the above, what stage of acquisition is Victor currently at in English?

3. What teaching methods are preferred at this stage?

4. What strategies did Victor use when he couldn't respond?

5. What skill areas require special attention? (pronunciation, grammar, vocabulary, fluency, comprehension)

6. What other learning characteristics need to be accounted for in Victor's ESL program?

B. Developmental Stages of Acquisition

The acquisition of a second language progresses in four distinct stages, or levels of competence. The types of language activities that students are capable of at each stage vary with each level. In the following pages basic types of activities are suggested for each of the four language stages.

1. Preproduction/Comprehension Stage

- Students communicate with gestures and actions.
- Lessons focus on listening comprehension.
- Lessons build receptive vocabulary.

Representative Comprehension/Preproduction Activities

Activities might include:

- Total Physical Response (TPR) Activities
- Language experiences
- Games
- Drawing/illustrating
- Looking for pictures to match vocabulary
- Listening to dramatizations
- Listening to skits, cassettes, videos, or filmstrips.
- Music

Students respond by:

- Performing an act
- Pointing to an item/picture or writing the letter corresponding to a picture
- Gesturing or nodding
- Saying yes or no
- Say the names of other students

Preproduction Stage:
SAMPLE ACTIVITY

TPR STUDENT KIT: THE HOME*

Lesson I
(Comprehension Skills)

Vocabulary:

- ceiling
- chair
- floor
- kitchen
- pot
- sink
- stove
- table
- tea kettle
- window
- move
- put
- remove
- touch

Structures:

Put the ________ in the ________
Put the ________ on the side of________
Put the ________ on the other side of ________
Touch the ________.
Move a ________ away from ________
Remove the ________ from the ________

Series I (kitchen vocabulary)

1. Put the sink in the kitchen.
2. Put the stove in the kitchen.
3. Put a table in the kitchen.
4. Put a chair on one side of the table.
5. Put another chair on the other side of the table.
6. Touch the sink.
7. Touch the stove.
8. Touch the tea kettle that is on the stove.
9. Touch the pot that is on the stove.
10. Touch a chair.
11. Touch the table.
12. Move a chair away from the table.
13. Move the chair next to the table.
14. Touch the floor in the kitchen.
15. Touch the ceiling in the kitchen.
16. Touch the window in the kitchen.
17. Touch another window in the kitchen.
18. Touch still another window.
19. Remove the sink from the kitchen.
20. Remove the stove from the kitchen.
21. Remove the table from the kitchen.
22. Remove a chair.
23. Remove the other chair.

Source: Asher, J. J. (1982). TPR student kit: The home (Lesson 1). Los Gatos, CA: Sky Oaks Productions.
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ACTIVITY

Using TPR to Facilitate Language Acquisition

1. Watch the videotaped demonstration lesson using Total Physical Response methodology from the series *Meeting The Challenge,* a curriculum study program, developed by Los Angeles County Public Schools.

2. What are the features of this approach that facilitate language acquisition, particularly at early stages?

3. What did your learn about structuring a TPR lesson?

4. What are your reactions to this approach?

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2. Early Production/Stage

- Students speak using one or two words or short phrases.
- Lessons expand receptive vocabulary.
- Activities are designed to motivate students to produce vocabulary which they already understand.

Representative Early Production Activities

Activities might include:

- All stage 1 activities
- TPR activities
- Language experiences
- Charades
- Role-playing
- Open-ended sentences
- Interview with guidelines written out
- Charts, tables and graphs
- Newspaper ads
- Content activities

Students respond by:

- Yes/No answers
- One word answers from either/or questions
- One word answer from general questions:*who*, *what*, *when* *where*
- Lists of words
- Two word strings (usually with errors)

Early Production Stage:
Sample Activity

CHOCOLATE CHIP COOKIES

WHAT YOU NEED:

chocolate chips
flour
sugar
salt
eggs
brown sugar
vanilla
butter
recipe
(from chocolate chip package)

measuring spoons
measuring cup
bowl
spoon
pan
oil
wax paper
knife
oven

WHAT TO DO:

1. Put all the ingredients and utensils on the table.
2. Label and discuss each ingredient; looking, smelling, tasting, and touching as appropriate. e.g., Pass the egg around and ask "How does it look?" oval, white. "How does it feel?" cold, cool, smooth, hard. "What kind of container is this?" jar, bottle, bag. The facilitator should ask questions and model and expand upon students responses in a natural way.
3. Label and discuss each utensil, "What is it made of?" "How is it used?"
4. Read each step in the recipe or have individual students read the steps.
5. Have students complete each step e.g., measuring the flour, counting eggs and cracking them, mixing, etc.
6. Bake the cookies. Discuss the time and the changes.
7. Cut the cookies. Discuss division, equality, etc.
8. Eat the cookies. Discuss taste, texture, past experiences, smell, temperature, etc.

WHAT TO TALK ABOUT:

1. Describing the ingredients and the utensils. Categorizing them.
2. Compare before and after the cookies were baked or how each ingredient changes the dough.
3. Discuss mathematical concepts such as, same, different, equality, fractions, size, geometry, measurement, time, more, less, counting.
4. Relate the experience to students' prior experiences.
5. Talk about the senses; sight, smell, taste, touch, hearing.

WORDS TO USE:

Numbers 1-5
teaspoon
tablespoon
1/2, 1/4, 1/3
1 cup
more
less

minutes
hard
soft
smooth
bumpy
cold
white

brown
yellow
plastic
glass
wood
metal
jar
bottle

bag
yolk
albumin
oven
bake
lid
push
pull

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

3. Speech Emergence Stage

- Students speak in longer phrases and complete sentences.
- Lessons continue to expand receptive vocabulary.
- Activities are designed to develop higher levels of language use.

Representative Speech Emergence Activities

Activities might include:

. All stage 1 and 2 activities
. TPR activities
. Language experiences
. Preference ranking
. Games
. Charts, tables, graphs
. Newspaper ads
. Group discussion
. Skits
. Music, radio, T.V. with cloze activities
. Filmstrips
. Readings
. Filling out forms
. Descriptions of visuals
. Writing simple compositions
. Content activities

Students respond by:

. Three words and short phrases
. Longer phrases
. Complete sentences
. Dialogs
. Extended narrative

Speech Emergence Stage:
Sample Activities*

I. Preference ranking

In this activity, students rank the response according to their own preference. In the follow-up, the students have the oportunity to express their opinions and feelings. The following is one topic often discussed:

My favorite summer activity is:

__________________ swimming
__________________ reading novels
__________________ playing tennis
__________________ cooking

Follow-up:

Who ranked swimming as number one? (Mark raises his hand). Where do you swim, Mark? How often? When did you first learn to swim? Have you ever swum competitively? Who else in the class swims a great deal? (Betty raises her hand). Did you mark swimming as your first preference? Why not? What did you mark? (playing tennis). Why do you like tennis more than swimming?

II. Personal charts and tables

The use of charts is a means of providing comprehensible input while requiring one-word or short answers. The construction of tables of information about students in a class, as this one, serves as a basis for further interchange.

	MONDAY	WEDNESDAY	SATURDAY
John	works	studies	plays baseball
Jim	studies	has baseball practice	works in supermarket
Louise	studies	has swim team practice	plays waterpolo
Herman	works at record store	lifts weights	visits friends

Does Jim have baseball practice on Wednesdays? What team is he on? What position does he play? Who plays water polo on Saturdays? Why does she play on Saturdays? Does she ever play during the week? Does she play for fun only or is she on a team? What position does she play? Do girls and women ordinarily play water polo? Why? Why not? Do you suppose Louise knows how to swim? Well? Why?

*Source: Krashen, S.D. & Terrell, T.D. (1983) The natural approach. Language acquisition in the Classroom (pp. 103-104). San Francisco, CA: Alemany Press. Reprinted by permission of Alemany Press, Hayward, CA.

4. Intermediate Fluency Stage

- Students engage in conversation and produce connected narrative.
- Lessons continue to expand receptive vocabulary.
- Activities are designed to develop higher levels of language use in content areas.
- Reading and writing activities are incorporated into lessons.

Representative Intermediate Fluency Activities

Activities might include:

- Content-based activities
- Semantic organizer activities
- Creative-arts based activities (poetry, drama, music, photographic essays)
- Creative writing activities (journals, joint books)
- Extended-reading activities
- Discussion activities
- Critical thinking skills activities (problem solving, decision-making, evaluation activities)

Students respond by:

- Extended discourse
- Paragraphs
- Narratives
- Creative writing (poetry, descriptive writing)

Intermediate Fluency Stage: Sample Activity*

1.1 Making Improvements

Directions: *Work with a small group (3 to 5 students).* Read the words on the list below and think of different ways to improve the items. Be creative! There are no limits. Have one person write down the group's ideas for each item. *Share your answers with the class.*

1. Television
2. Alarm clock
3. Radio
4. Pen
5. Typewriter
6. Refrigerator
7. Toaster
8. Hair dryer
9. Can opener
10. Bicycle

PURPLE COWS & POTATO CHIPS, © 1987 by Alemany Press, Hayward, CA
Permission granted to reproduce for classroom use

*Source: Christison, M. A., & Bassano, S. (1987). Purple cows & potato chips (unit 1: purple cows 7). Hayward, CA: Alemany Press. Reprinted by permission of Alemany Press, Hayward, CA.

ACTIVITY:

5. Understanding the Natural Approach Through *The Rainbow Collection**

Select a lesson from the
following cards: Card 171
Card 173
Card 174
Card 178

Analyze the lesson in terms of:

a) activity type (language experience, creative arts, content-based, group discussion, game, etc.),

b) appropriateness of the activity for the stage for which it was planned,

c) teacher role,

d) student role in the lesson,

and,

e) language learning style favored.

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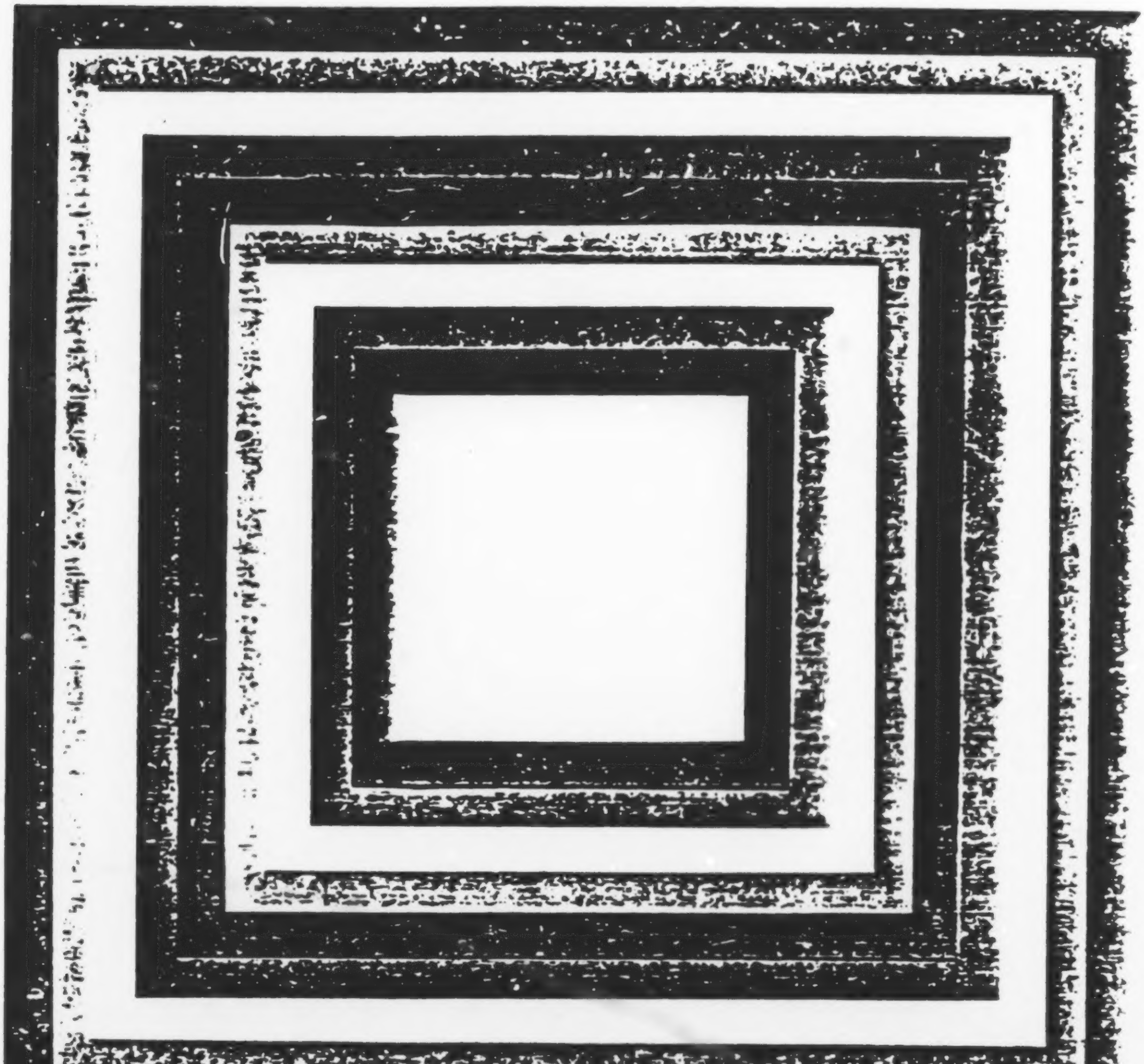
*Permission to reproduce Rainbow Collection Cards 171, 173, 174 & 178 has been granted by Santillana Publishing Company to the Institute for Urban and Minority Education.

SAMPLE ACTIVITY

THE RAINBOW COLLECTION



Santillana Publishing Co.

Source: Alvarez Martini, M., et al. (1984). The rainbow collection-Teacher's guide (cover). Northvale, NJ: Santillana Publishing. Reprinted by permission.

CARD 171

TOPIC: Transportation **SUBTOPIC:** Modes

OBJECTIVE: Students will identify different modes of transportation by responding to commands.

Preproduction

Materials

Balloon with string attached to a small toothpick figure giving the illusion of floating through the air, pictures of air transportation vehicles

Instruction

Motivator:

Display of pictures and balloon

Lesson:

Allow the students to handle the balloon and talk to the students about it. Example: "Look at how the balloon floats through the air. The balloon is carrying this person (point to toy figure.) It's fun to travel by balloon," etc. Show pictures of air vehicles and talk about each one.

Distribute the pictures and give the students commands and ask questions. Example: "Point to the airplane. Where is the spaceship? Who has the picture of the pilot flying the airplane? To review vocabulary, ask questions about pictures. Example: "What color is the sun? What do you see in the picture of the airport? (people) Yes, there are many people at the airport. What are they doing?"

Reinforcement

Have the students cut out magazine pictures of vehicles that travel by air or in space. Paste them on construction paper and label them. Label the display "Air and Space Travel."

Core Vocabulary

NOUNS	VERBS
air	float
space	fly
helium	take off
stars	land
sun	
clouds	
airport	

AIR VEHICLES	PEOPLE
balloon	pilot/copilot
airplane	flight attendant
jet	passenger
blimp	
rocket	
spaceship	
helicopter	

CARD 173

TOPIC: Transportation **SUBTOPIC:** Modes

OBJECTIVE: Students will name different modes of transportation.

Materials

Pictures of different parts of vehicles or parts from toy vehicles (tires, propellers, etc.), pictures of vehicles

Instruction

Motivator:

Display of pictures or toy vehicle parts

Lesson:

Review different types of vehicles.

Point out the toy parts or show pictures of parts and talk about each one as it is passed among the students. Then ask the students to place the picture or toy part with the picture of the vehicle to which it belongs.

Ask the students to identify the vehicles and parts by asking questions such as, "Is this an airplane or a boat? The wings are part of what vehicle? What else belongs here?" Ask questions to review transportation vocabulary pertaining to airplanes and boats from previous lessons: "Who flies the airplane? Who takes care of the passengers? Where do we go to catch an airplane?"

Reinforcement

Have the students make a mobile of transportation vehicles.

Core Vocabulary

AIRPLANE	BOATS
propeller	anchor
wings	sail
body	pier
airplanes	fog
engine	deck
	cargo
	sailor
	captain
	crew
	load
	horn

CARD 174

TOPIC: Transportation **SUBTOPIC:** Modes

OBJECTIVE: Students will compare vehicles.

Speech Emergence

Materials

Models and pictures of different kinds of cars, price tags

Instruction

Motivator:

Display car models and picture cards

Lesson:

Tell the students that they are going to buy a car today and they must decide which is the best car to buy. Make a sales pitch for each of the cars, discussing how the cars ride, how they look, run, etc. Then ask the students which they would prefer to buy and why.

Allow the students to take turns being the salesperson and change the prices. Other students can be the customers and ask questions about the cars. Include as many comparatives as possible. "Which car is bigger? Which is prettier? Which do you like best? How are these two cars different? How are they the same?"

Reinforcement

Have the students design a poster for selling cars. Ask questions while they work, like "How much will your car cost? Will you offer a discount?"

Core Vocabulary

NOUNS

car
salesperson
discount
station wagon
van
truck
buyer
seller
interior
exterior
miles
paint
price

VERBS

sell
buy
drive
ride
pay

ADJECTIVES

cheap/er/est
new/er/est
old/er/est
expensive

CARD 178

Intermediate Fluency

TOPIC: Transportation **SUBTOPIC:** Modes

OBJECTIVE: Students will describe the purpose of the transportation vehicles.

Materials

Pictures of different kinds of service vehicles

Instruction

Motivator:

Display of pictures

Lesson:

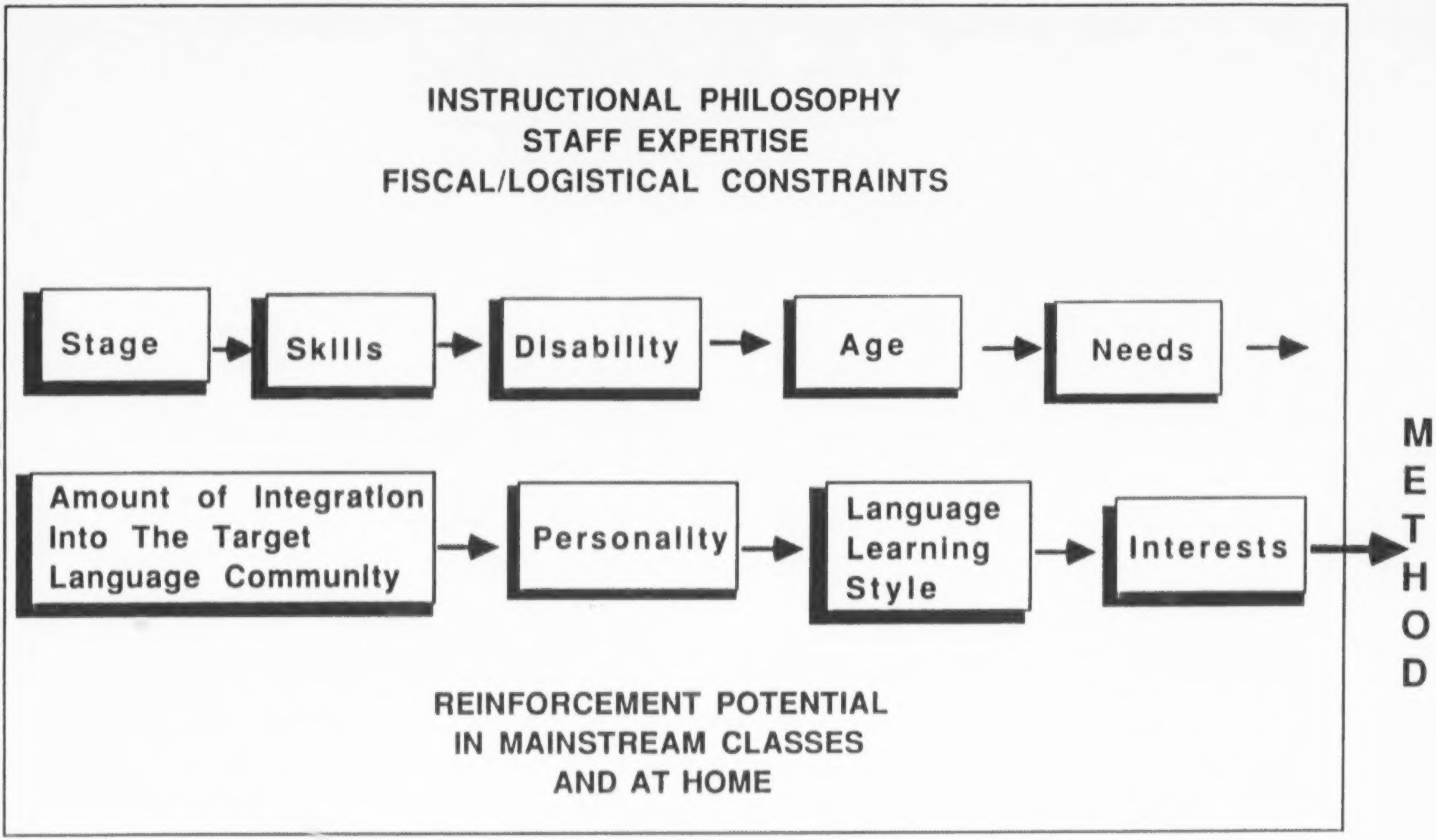
Ask the students if they are familiar with any of the vehicles pictured. Discuss what they are and the services that they provide. Ask the students what would happen if these service vehicles did not exist. Write new vocabulary on the chalkboard.

Reinforcement

Have the students write or dictate a story about a service vehicle and why it is important.

Core Vocabulary

SERVICE VEHICLES	VERBS
garbage truck	pick up
mail truck	deliver
taxi	load
moving van	unload
delivery truck	pump
oil tanker	assist
gasoline truck	haul
service	carry
cargo	



INSTRUCTIONAL PHILOSOPHY
STAFF EXPERTISE
FISCAL/LOGISTICAL CONSTRAINTS

Stage → Skills → Disability → Age → Needs →

Amount of Integration Into The Target Language Community → Personality → Language Learning Style → Interests → METHOD

REINFORCEMENT POTENTIAL
IN MAINSTREAM CLASSES
AND AT HOME

SELECTION OF METHOD/ACTIVITIES FOR LANGUAGE DEVELOPMENT IN CLDE CHILDREN

Cloud, 1987

7. Sample ESL Curriculum Materials by Stage of Development

Preproduction Stage

TPR Student Kits. Sky Oaks Productions, Inc., P.O. Box 1120, Los Gatos, CA 95031

BETA (Beginning English Through Action) Addison-Wesley Publishing Co. Reading, MA 08167

Magnetic Way, A Division of Creative Edge Inc.
2495 North Forest Road, Amherst, NY 14068

Early Production Stage

Open the Lights: Language Experience for young children, Addison-Wesley Publishing Co.

Jazz Chants
Jazz Chants for Children. Oxford University Press.
200 Madison Avenue, New York: N.Y. 10016

Live Action English. Sky Oaks Productions, Inc.

Speech Emergence Stage

See It. Say It, Ver y Hablar
Sharing a Song. Addison-Wesley Publishing Co.

Word Way Games. The Alemany Press, 2501 Industrial Parkway West Dept. AL, Hayward, CA 94545

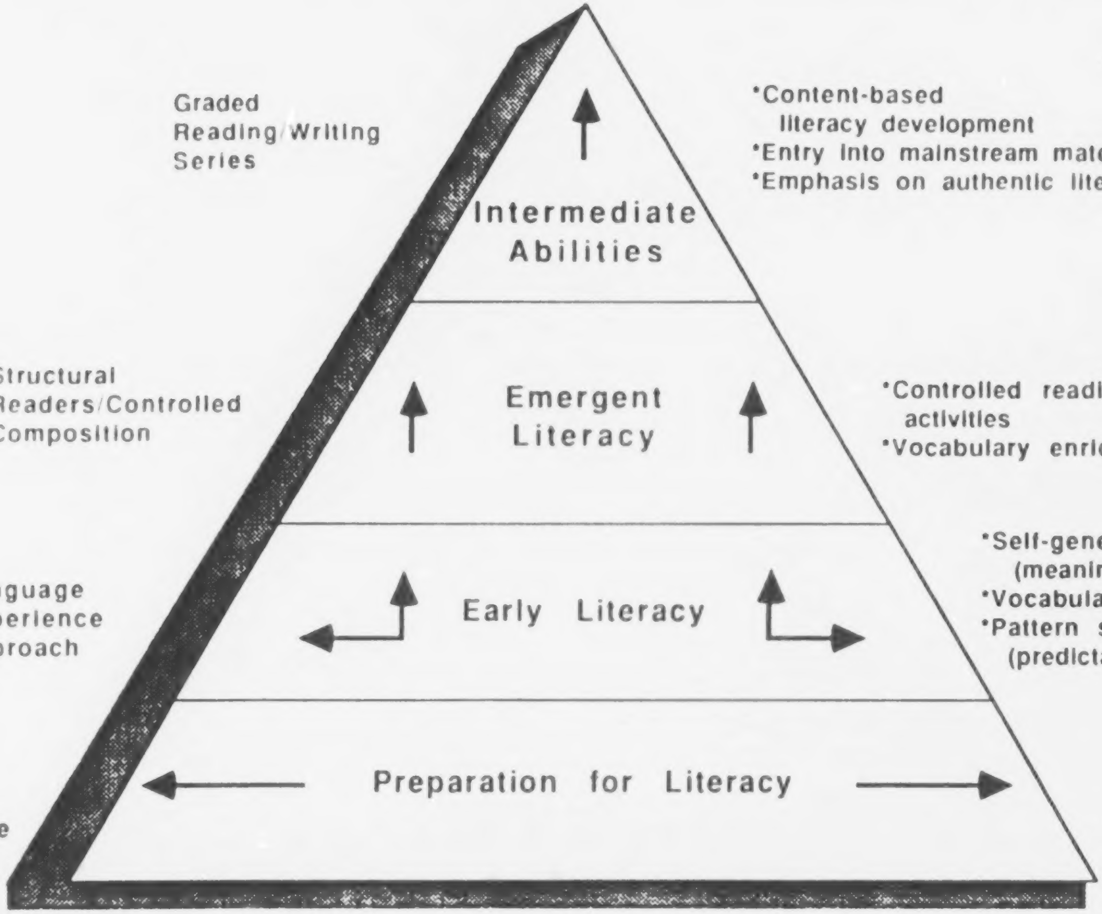
Intermediate Fluency

Purple Cows and Potato Chips: Multisensory Language Acquisition Activities, The Alemany Press.

Culturally and Linguistically Appropriate Programming/ Literacy Programs and Materials

MULTISYSTEM

A. LITERACY DEVELOPMENT INSTRUCTIONAL SEQUENCE



Graded
Reading/Writing
Series

Intermediate Abilities

- Content-based literacy development
- Entry into mainstream materials
- Emphasis on authentic literature

Structural
Readers/Controlled
Composition

Emergent Literacy

- Controlled reading/writing activities
- Vocabulary enrichment

Language
Experience
Approach

Early Literacy

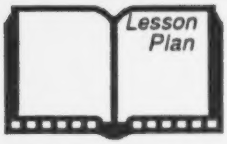
- Self-generated text (meaning-centered)
- Vocabulary development
- Pattern stories (predictable, rhythmic)

Shared
Book
Experience

Preparation for Literacy

- Oral language development
- Development of a "literacy set"

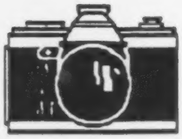
Cloud, 1987



A Plan for Victor

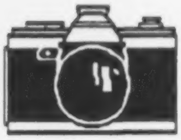
1. ACTIVITY: *Planning A Bilingual Reading Program: Native Language Reading*

Skills Analysis through the BRIGANCE® Diagnostic Assessment of Basic Skills: Spanish Edition



1. Does Victor have basic decoding skills in Spanish at the:

	Y	N
syllable level?	☐	☐
word level?:		
preprimer level?	☐	☐
primer level?	☐	☐
first year:	☐	☐

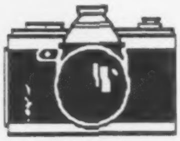


2. How does Victor perform at the preprimer level when asked to do a paragraph reading test?

What strategies did Victor use to read the sentences?

What disabilities impeded performance?

Stage Analysis Through Observation of Reading Performance



3. How is Victor's stage of reading development being assessed? What aspects are being analyzed?

Lesson Plan

A Plan for Victor

1. ACTIVITY: *Planning A Bilingual Reading Program: Native Language Reading*

Skills Analysis through the BRIGANCE® Diagnostic Assessment of Basic Skills: Spanish Edition (cont'd)

4. What does Victor do with the book? What does he know about reading? What stage is he at? What aids/hinders his performance?

5. For non-Spanish speaking viewers, what would be your role in the assessment process if you had requested this assessment and were working with the specialist as your interpreter?

What are the advantages and disadvantages of working with an interpreter?

Lesson Plan

A Plan for Victor

2. ACTIVITY: *Planning A Bilingual Reading Program: Second Language Reading*

1. Can Victor perform on a word level at the:

	Y	N
preprimer level?	☐	☐
primer level?	☐	☐

2. Analyze Victor's performance at the paragraph level. What strengths and weaknesses did he exhibit on the preprimer level?

What happens when Victor is asked to repeat a sentence in which he makes an error, as is required by the test procedures?

3. What stage of reading development is Victor at in English?

4. What methods are preferred at this stage?

5. Should English reading be taught at this time? Justify your answer.

Lesson Plan

A Plan for Victor

3. ACTIVITY: *Planning a Bilingual Writing Program*

a. Look at the transparencies your trainer has made of writing samples collected by Victor's teacher.

b. What stage of writing development is Victor at in each language? (see page 223)

c. Using the rating technique provided on pages 108-109, rate Victor's language level (1-6), message quality (1-6) and use of directional principles (1-6).

d. Should English writing be taught at this time? Justify your answer.

B. Developmental Stages of Literacy Development

The principles discussed in the last unit about the oral language acquisition process are also applicable to literacy development. Learning to read and write in a second language is a developmental process which is best accomplished when the literacy experiences are meaningful to the learner. The student needs many opportunities to approach literacy in comfortable settings designed to promote success and facilitate growth from one stage to the next. As with oral language, developmental and interlanguage errors are regarded as an acceptable part of the process. Learners move through four basic stages as they acquire literacy. These stages are described in the unit which follows. In each case, basic activities are suggested to facilitate reading and writing development. It should be carefully noted that the first stage applies only to *preliterate* students.

1. Preparation for Literacy

- Shared reading/writing experiences
- Creation of oral stories with wordless picture books
- Emphasis on enjoyment and retrieval of meaning

Representative Preparatory Activities

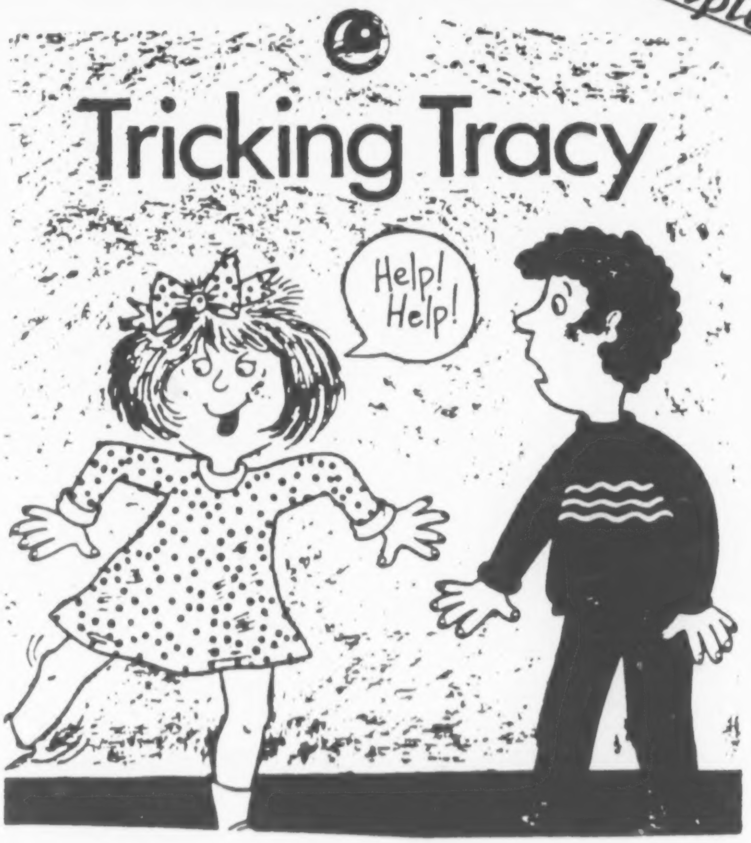
Activities might include:

- Word cards
- Personal picture dictionaries
- Identifying key words in teacher-developed story
- Listening to taped or teacher-read stories (authentic children's literature, pattern stories)
- Oral story retelling
- Drawing as a means of written expression

Students respond by:

- Processing stories reading-like ways, approximating to book language
- Answering comprehension questions in L_1
- Demonstrating comprehension by appropriate emotional response
- Scribbling, drawing

Sample Lesson



Tracy was always playing tricks. One day, Grandma took Tracy to the pool. "Help! Help!" cried Tracy. I'm drowning! Grandma rushed to save her. But Tracy was only tricking.

One day, Mom took Tracy to the fair. "Help! Help! cried Tracy. I'm falling! Mom rushed to save her. But Tracy was only tricking.

One day, John took Tracy to the park. "Help! Help! cried Tracy. I'm slipping! John rushed to save her. But Tracy was only tricking.

One day, Grandpa took Tracy to a barbecue. "Help! Help! cried Tracy. I've burned my hand! Grandpa rushed to save her. But Tracy was only tricking.

One day, the teacher took Tracy to the zoo. "Help! Help" cried Tracy. This time, **no one** rushed to save her. They knew Tracy was always tricking. But **this** time she wasn't!

Source: Story by Donovan, S. & Butler, A. (1984). Rigby Education, Melbourne. Permission to reprint this material has been granted by Rigby Education, Inc. to the Institute for Urban and Minority Education.

2. Early Literacy

- Interlanguage forms accepted in reading/writing
- Experience-based reading/writing
- Emphasis on meaningful communication, exchange of information

Representative
Early Literacy Activities

Activities might include:

- vocabulary development
- "key word" techniques (sight vocabulary)
- predict/confirm events in stories
- dictate story for teacher to write
- labelling pictures
- copying
- dictation of key words
- filling-in blanks
- completion exercises

Students respond by:

- realizing print is stable
- following print as books are read
- self-correcting for sense
- engaging in early writing (letters name)
- answer simple comprehension questions
- attempting to copy or trace teacher's writing
- producing single words to label pictures

Ist Draft

MAKING APPLESAUCE

The. story of the apple.
Today is Friday. It's Friday. We go make applesauce. We need eight apple, a measuring cup, two measuring cup, sugar, and water. We going wash the apple: Then we cut it in a piece. Then we add sugar, water, into the pan, than we cut all this up-the outside of the apple. Then we cook it until the apples melt. In a small, small, teeny piece.

We put the knife back and the sugar, and all the measuring cup. Then we need a bowl, spoon, mom going to put the applesauce in a bowl for us. Everybody smells so yum-yum. The little baby boy played with the bloek and mom caught him. And she give him some applesauces, too. And we all eat it. The applesauce now not in the apple now. Is in our stomach. How good they taste.

Final Draft

MAKING APPLESAUCE

Today is Friday. We are going to make applesauce. We will need eight apples, a measuring cup, sugar, and water.

First, we wash the apples. The we peel the skin and remove the core. In the core, we see the seeds. We take off the stem, too. Then we cut up the flesh of the apples into little pieces.

Next, we put all the pieces of apple into a pan. We add enough water to cover it and one-half cup of sugar. We wait until the water boils and the apples become real soft.

We take the pan off the stove. Carefully, we put the apple mixture in a bowl. We mash it with a spoon. It smells so good!

At last, everyone gets to taste the applesauce. Some boys and girls put cinnamon on top. We all like appleasauce a lot!

Follow-Up Activities

A. Comprehension Questions

1. Does applesauce smell good?
2. Do you put cinnamon or water on top of the applesauce?
3. What do you do first to the apples?
4. What is another name for the middle of the apple?
5. How much sugar do you put in the measuring cup?
6. Draw a picture of the story.

B. Vocabulary Development

1. What part of the apple did we not throw away?

   A. The stem
   B. The seeds
   C. The core
   D. The flesh

2. What does an apple have that you have, too?
   A. A stem
   B. A core
   C. Skin
   D. Seeds

3. What made the apples soft?
   A. Very hot water
   B. Very cold water
   C. The sugar
   D. The bowl

4. How did the applesauce taste?
   A. Bitter
   B. Salty
   C. Sour
   D. Sweet

5. Why is applesauce good for you?
   A. It's made from vegetables.
   B. It's made of meat.
   C. It's made from fruits.
   D. It's easy to make.

Making Applesauce

C. Cloze Activity (Focused on verbs)

Today is Friday. We are going to make applesauce. We will need eight apples, a measuring cup, and water.

First, we __________ the apples. Then we ___________ the skin and ________ the core. In the core, we _________ the seeds. We _________ the stem, too. Then we __________ up the flesh of the apples into little pieces.

Next, we _________ all the pieces of apple into a pan. We ________ enough water too _________ it and one half cup of sugar. We ________ until the water_________ and the apples _____real soft.

We __________ the pan off the stove. Carefully, we _____the apple mixture in a bowl. We _________ it with a spoon. It _________ so good.

At last, everyone _________ to __________ the applesauce. Some boys and girls put cinnamon on top. We all like applesauce a lot!

Mash
Peel
Put
See

Smells
Add
Boils
Remove
Wash

Become
Take
Cover
Wait
Taste

Cut
Take off
Put
Gets

D. Cloze Activity (Traditional)

Today is Friday. We are going to make applesauce. We will need eight apples, a measuring cup, sugar, and water.

First, we wash the apples. Then __________ peel the skin and remove the ______. In the core, we see the_______. We take off the stem, too. _________ we cut up the flesh of ____ apples into little pieces.

Next, we ________ all the pieces of apple into _______. We add enough water to ________ it and one half cup of_______. We wait until the water boils ______ apples become real soft.

We _________ the pan off the stove. Carefully, _______ put the apple mixture in a _______. We mash it with a spoon. ________ smells so good!

At last,________gets to tasted the applesauce. Some boys and girls put cinnamon on top. We all like applesauce a lot!

Core
Needs
Then
A
Sugar
And
Bowl
It
Everyone
Take
The
Put
Cover
We
We

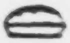
ADDITIONAL LANGUAGE EXPERIENCE READING ACTIVITIES

1. On the simplest level children may arrange the word cards (usually there is one card for every word in the story) in the same order in which the words appear in the story (written on the board or on a large sheet of newsprint). Words which are used several times (we, the, in) need multiple copies.

2. Beginners may find it helpful to match a word card to a related picture (farm, pumpkin, seeds, cups, over).

3. Children may make sentences using the word cards. At first the teacher may make a short sentence from the story leaving out one or two words. Later the teacher may select a word and ask the child to make a sentence around it. Later still a child may simply be directed to "make sentences using the words in our story." If the child makes a sentence which omits an article or a helping verb, the teacher should spread the word cards apart at that point and ask what is missing or how the child might make the sentence better.

4. Children may make rebus sentences.

   We also made a  with some pumpkins

5. They may unscramble sentences.

   go I farm to

6. They may sequence events with sentence strips.

   We cut the pumpkin.

   We cooked the pumpkin.

7. Selected words in the story may be used as a spelling list, using whatever spelling study techniques the teacher favors.

8. Selected words in the stories may be used to illustrate and practice blending separate sounds into complete words. The teacher can model aloud the correct pronunciation while pointing to the parts of the word in turn on the card.

9. New vocabulary may be developed by taking off from the words already used. The story reads, "We mixed them (sugar, pumpkin, spices) in the mixer."

10. The children may find words in the story with the same beginning sounds.

    we went with wash watered

    put pumpkin pie planted pan

(OVER)

11. The children may find words with long and short vowels.

pick skin mixed in

pie spice

12. The children may unscramble words in the story.

newt → went

13. The children may rhyme words in the story with other words.

took cook

14. The children may alphabetize the word cards.

allspice bowl chopped egg

15. The children may find synonyms and antonyms for words in the story

oven	stove	in	out
small	little	off	on
mix	stir	open	close

16. Selected words in the stories may be used to illustrate consonant blends. Children may be asked to choose those word cards which contain blends.

skin crusts planted frying

17. As in number 16, selected words in the stories may be used to illustrate consonant digraphs.

wash chopped them

Source: Chamberlain, P., Kolbusz, L., Johnston, G. Help LELPS. Accepted for publication from *Instructor* magazine

3. Emergent Literacy

. Continued use of student-constructed texts
. Introduction of controlled reading and writing activities

Representative
Emergent Literacy Activities

Activities might include:

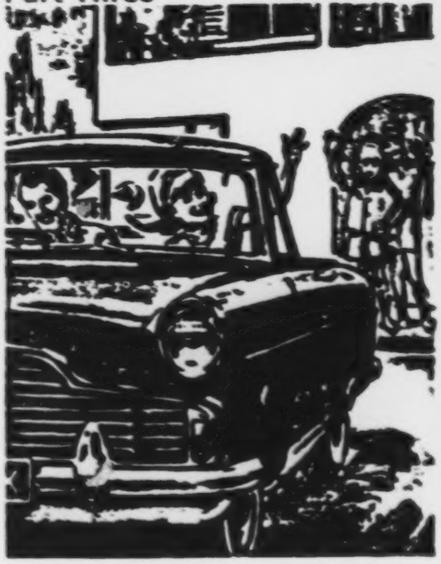
- choral reading
- silent reading of pattern stories, structural readers,
- student-developed stories
- simple letters, notes
- journals; joint book-making
- conversion exercises
- filling-in blanks
- dictation
- writing from pictures
- arranging words into sentences or sentences into a paragraph
  (word cards, sentence strips)
- composing sentences from a structural writing box

Students respond by:

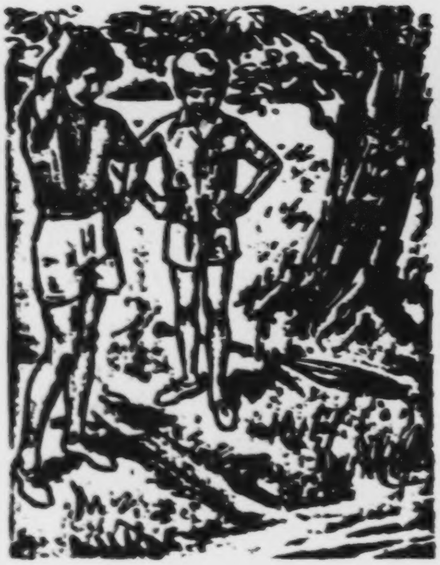
- confirming and self-correcting by semantic and syntactic fit
- finding known words in text
- predicting text using syntax & meaning
- recognizing words visually
- forming letters, words in identifiable way
- separating words in print
- manipulating words/sentence parts into sentences
- attempting simple written messages using personal words
- showing signs of using letter-sound approximations in writing

Sample Read

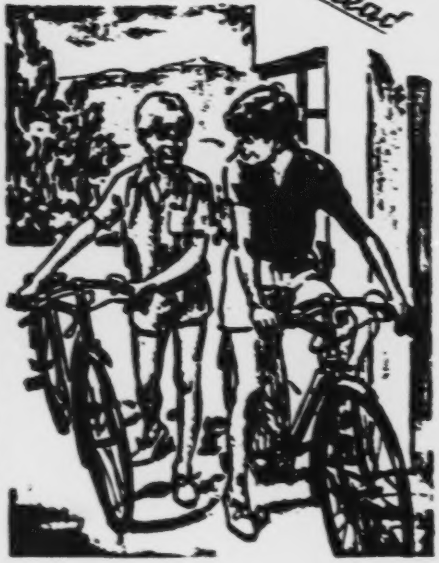
Part Three



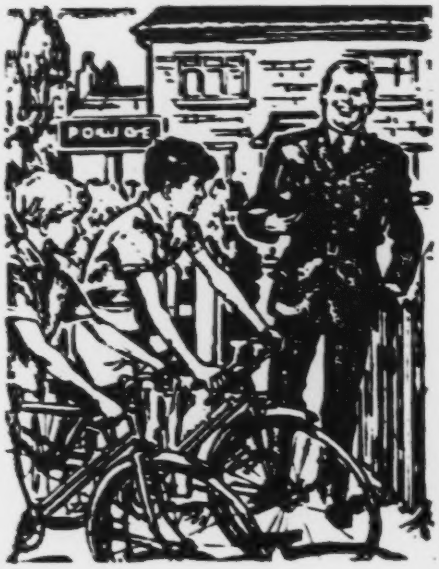
It is morning.
Mr. Dean is going to the town.
Mrs. Dean is in the car, too.
She is going to the stores.



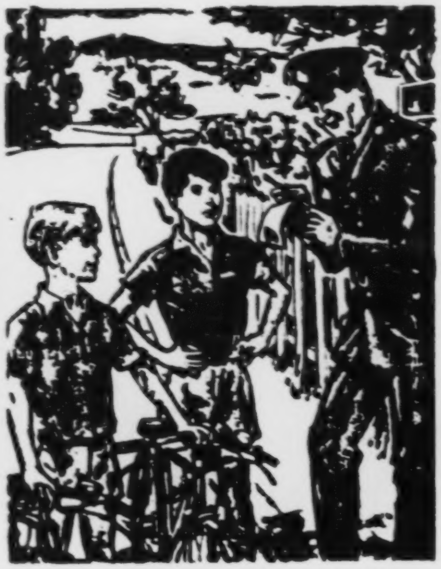
The boys go to the river,
but they cannot see the boat.
It is not there.



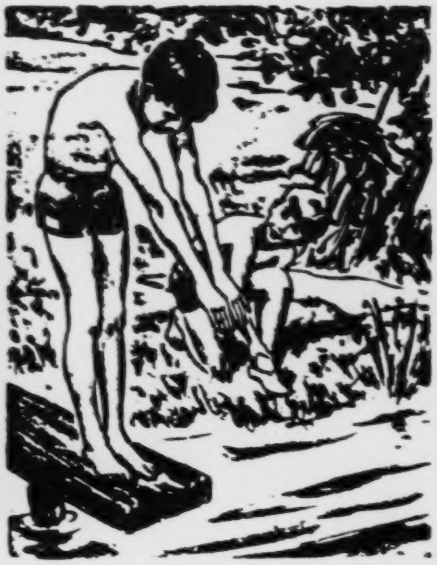
Bill jumps on his bicycle.
"Come with me," he says.
"Come to Mr. Ford's house."
Tom is taking his bicycle, too.
Their bicycles are blue.



Mr. Ford is a policeman.
His house is in the village.
"What are you doing here,
Bill?" he asks. "Are you going
to take me in your boat?"



Bill says: "No. My boat
is not there."
The policeman asks questions
and writes Bill's story
in his book.



The two boys are in a field.
It is beside the river.
Their clothes are
on their bicycles.
They are going to swim.

Source: *Eyre, A., (1966). Stage 1: Green Island*
Longman Group Limited: White Plains, N.Y.

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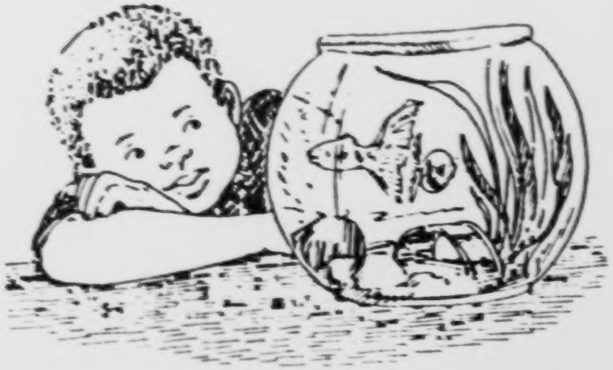
Sample Composition Activity

18

John was happy. He had a new book.

11. Take John out and put Elizabeth in. You must also change He to She.



19

Tom sat down. He watched the fish.

11. Take Tom out and put Mary in. You must also change He to She.

Peter listened. He heard a dog.

12. Take Peter out and put Ann in. You must also change He.

____

21

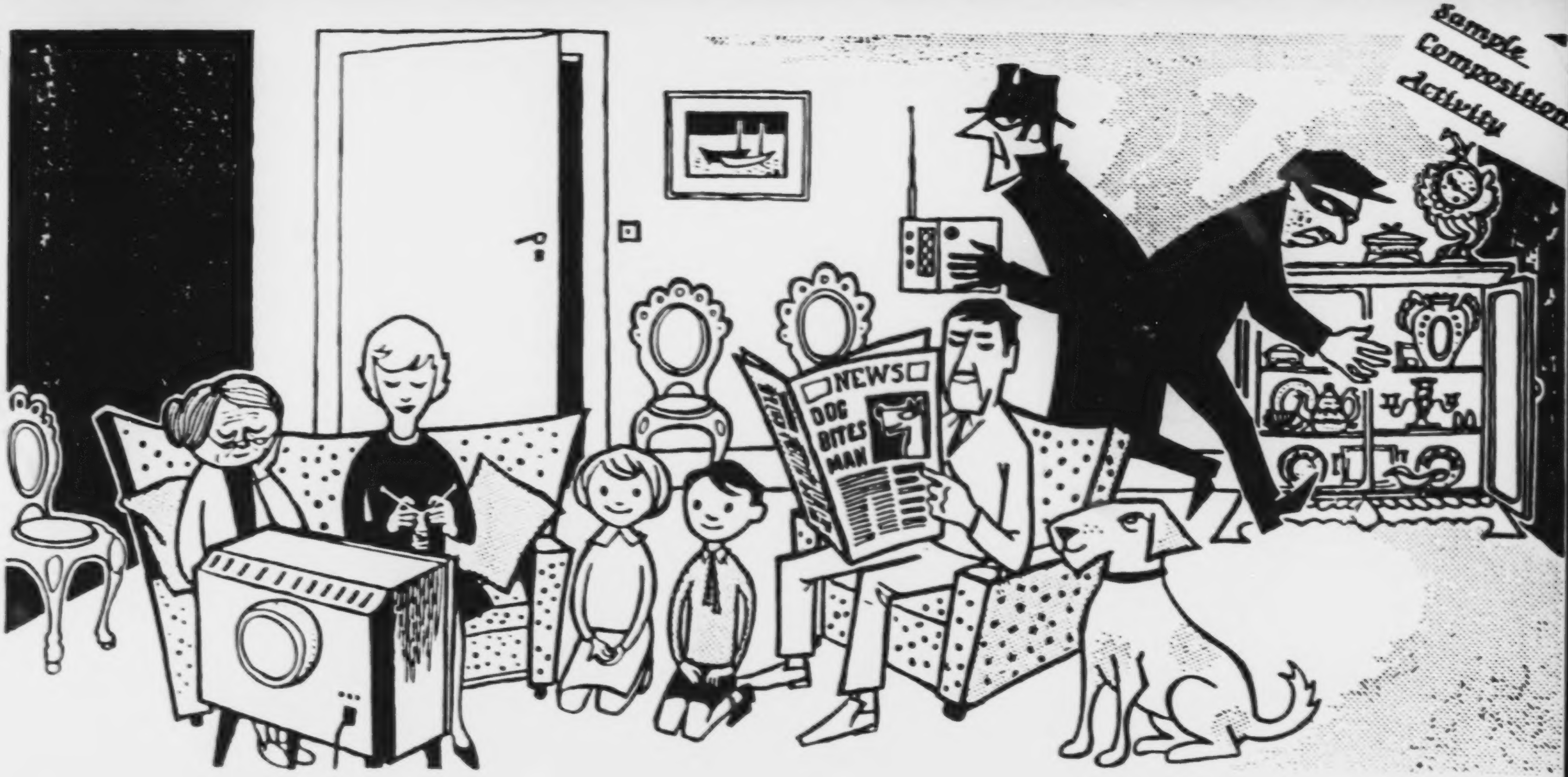
The boy made a boat. He put it in the water.

12. Take boy out and put girl in. You must also change He.
13. Change boy to boys. You must also changed He to They.

From: Port, A. (1974). Composition: Guided free, program 1 (sections 18, 19, 20 & 21). New York, NY: Teachers College Press. Reprinted by permission.

Sample Composition Activity

4



1 sitting-room, arm-chair, sofa, newspaper, cabinet, television (set), radio (set), thief, mask, knit ; steal, notice ; comfortably, silently.

2

I The people in the room We John and Peter	do not know	what is happening. who is there. where the thieves are. when the visitors came.

3

a Are the two children watching television ?
b Where are they ?
c Who is sitting in the arm-chair ?
d What is the old woman doing ?
e Where is the dog ?
f Is the cabinet in front of the sofa ?
g What are the two men wearing over their faces ?
h What is one man carrying ?
i What is the other man doing ?
j Do the people in the room know what is happening ?

4 Describe this picture.

From: Heaton, J. B. (1966). Composition through pictures. (p. 5). White Plaines, NY: Longman Inc.

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4. Intermediate Abilities in Reading and Writing

. Vocabulary expansion
. Focus on increasing fluency
. Refinement of language forms

Representative
Intermediate Reading/Writing Activities

Activities might include:

. word identification, categorization
. semantic organizers
. individualized reading (silent, oral)
. content area reading
. free writing (concrete poetry, journal entries)
. rewriting stories in own words
. controlled book reports
. proof-reading/editing
. studying model paragraphs
. dictionary activities
. composing paragraphs from unsequenced sentences
. conversion/transformation exercises
. writing ending to story; writing summaries
. cooperative writing activities

Students respond by:

. using established basic sight vocabulary
. systematically applying word recognition
strategies learned
. using whole text to comprehend unknown words
. using reference books independently
. attempting to spell from memory

Sample Lesson

The Water Buffalo and the Tiger

One day a farmer was plowing a field with a water buffalo. The field was very muddy. The water buffalo was pulling the plow very slowly.

"You silly water buffalo," said the farmer. "You move so slowly. Look how quick and strong the tiger is. Why can't you be like the tiger?"

"Why should I be like the tiger?" asked the water buffalo. "I am better than the tiger."

The farmer was angry. He beat the water buffalo with a stick.

"Take me to a tiger," said the water buffalo, "and I will show you that I am better than a tiger."

The next morning the farmer took his water buffalo to a tiger's den. The tiger came out of the den.

The water buffalo shook his sharp horns at the tiger and said,

"Stop! I have not come to fight you today because your teeth are not sharp. Make your teeth very sharp. In three days I will come back and fight you with my horns."

The tiger roared and went back into his den.

"Silly water buffalo, be back in three days and I will kill you," called the tiger. He laughed as he began to make his teeth very sharp.

The tiger sharpened his teeth for three days. He was very angry. No one had ever told him before that his teeth were not sharp enough.

The water buffalo went back to the farm. He sharpened his horns for one day. Then he said to the farmer,

"If you want me to work for you, do as I tell you. Cover my body with straw."

The farmer worked for two days covering his water buffalo with straw. He tied the straw so that the water buffalo had a coat of straw all over his body. Then the water buffalo rolled in the mud. His whole body was covered with a coat of straw and mud.

The water buffalo went to the tiger's den. The tiger came out of his den with a roar. He stopped when he saw the water buffalo.

"Why are you all covered with mud?" asked the tiger.

"It is summer time," said the water buffalo. "You know I take a mud bath every day. The mud keeps me cool in the summer time."

The tiger looked at the water buffalo again.

"You are very fat," said the tiger. Then the tiger laughed. "Today I will have a good dinner of nice fat water buffalo."

"You will not hurt a hair of my body," said the water buffalo.

"I could have killed you three days ago without sharpening my teeth," said the tiger. "And now my teeth are very sharp."

"All right," said the water buffalo. "I will lie down and let you bite me three times. Then you must let me butt you with my horns three times." The water buffalo lay down on the ground.

The tiger laughed and said,

"You are a silly water buffalo."

The tiger rushed at the water buffalo and bit him three time He was sure the water buffalo w dead. But the tiger could only bite into the straw that covered the water buffalo.

The water buffalo got up and butted the tiger three times with his sharp horns.

The first time the tiger was rolled over on his back. The second time the sharp horns went through the tiger. And the third time the tiger was tossed up into the air and fell back to the ground dead.

The farmer saw that his water buffalo was better than the tiger.

"I shall always be good to my water buffalo even if he does move slowly," said the farmer.

And in China the farmer thinks that the water buffalo is his best friend.

Source: Dolch, E. W., & Dolch, M. P. (1964). Stories from old China, folklore of the world (pp. 17-23). Allen, TX: DLM Teaching Resources. Reprinted by permission.

BEST COPY AVAILABLE

Stories From Old China

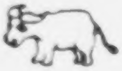
Follow-Up Seatwork Booklet, by
Nick Bartel, San Francisco Unified
School District, 1974.

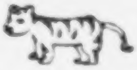
Name ____________________

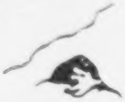
Date ______________

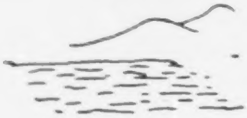
"The Water Buffalo and the Tiger"

Vocabulary:

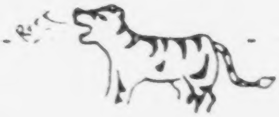
a water buffalo -  - - an animal. 水牛
The water buffalo worked on a farm.

a tiger -  - - an animal. 老虎
The tiger wanted to fight with the water buffalo.

a den -  - - a cave; a cave where an animal lives.
The tiger lived in a den. 穴

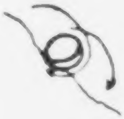
a field -  - - a large piece of land used for farming. 田
The farmer planted rice in the field.

to shake - - - to make something go back and forth very fast. 搖
The water buffalo shook its head.

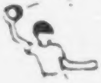
to roar -  - - to make a loud noise, like a tiger. 咆哮
The tiger roared when it was angry.

to sharpen - - - to make sharp. 使變成尖銳
The water buffalo sharpened its horns.

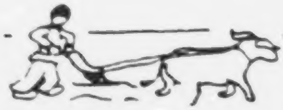
a horn - - The water buffalo had two horns on its head. 角

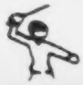
to roll -  - - The ball rolled down the hill. 滾

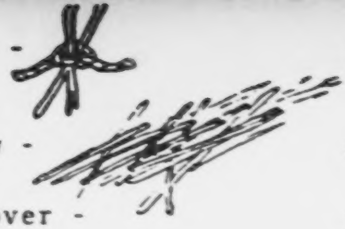
to butt - - - to hit with the head. 抵觸
The water buffalo butted the tiger.

to toss -  - - to throw. 投擲
The boy tossed the ball to me.

to rush - - - to go fast; to move quickly. 衝出
The tiger rushed out of its den

to plow -  - The farmer and the water buffalo plowed the field. 犁田

to beat -  - - to hit. The farmer beat the water buffalo. 打



to tie - He **tied** two sticks together. 綑綁

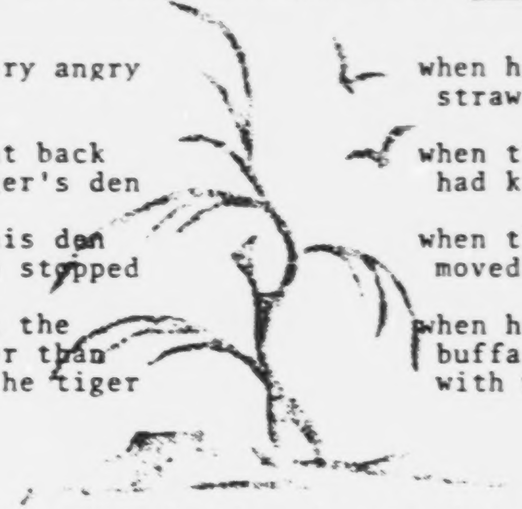
straw - a kind of dry grass. 稻草

to cover - to put something on top of something; to put something all over something. 蓋

The farmer covered the buffalo with straw.

I. DRAW A LINE

Here are some long sentences with when:



The farmer was very angry	when he had a coat of straw and mud.
The water buffalo went back to the tiger's den	when the water buffalo had killed the tiger.
The tiger came out of his den with a roar. He stopped	when the water buffalo moved so slowly.
The farmer knew that the water buffalo was better than the tiger	when he saw the water buffalo all covered with mud.

II. Read these sentences and underline the one that is true:

1. The water buffalo said,

"Why should I be like the farmer?"

"Why should I be like the tiger?"

"Why should I be like the water buffalo?"

2. The water buffalo said,

"The straw keeps me cool in the summer time."

"The mud keeps me cool in the summer time."

"The mud keeps me warm in the winter time."

3. The tiger said,

"I could have killed you without sharpening my horns."

"I could have killed you without covering my body with mud."

"I could have killed you without sharpening my teeth."

III. ADJECTIVES AND ADVERBS

Adjectives tell us about a person, place or thing.

Example: quick He is a quick reader.
He is quick.

Adverbs can tell us how we do things. Many adverbs end in "-ly."

Example: quickly He reads quickly.

Fill in the blanks with these adjectives and adverbs:

slow - slowly

1. The water buffalo moved very ________________ .
2. The water buffalo is a ________________ animal.

careful - carefully

3. The farmer was ________________ .
4. The farmer tied the straw ________________ to the water buffalo.

kind - kindly

5. The farmer was a ________________ man.
6. He spoke ________________ to the water buffalo.

loud - loudly

7. The tiger roared ________________ .
8. The tiger was very ________________ .

angry - angrily

9. The tiger was ________________ . No one had ever said that his teeth were not sharp.
10. The tiger spoke ________________ to the water buffalo.

happy - happily

11. The water buffalo and the farmer went ________________ back to the farm.
12. They were very ________________ .

Look at these words: angry happy
angrily happily

What happened to the "y" when we added "-l

IV. WHICH CAME FIRST?

____ The tiger sharpened his teeth.

____ The water buffalo butted the tiger three times.

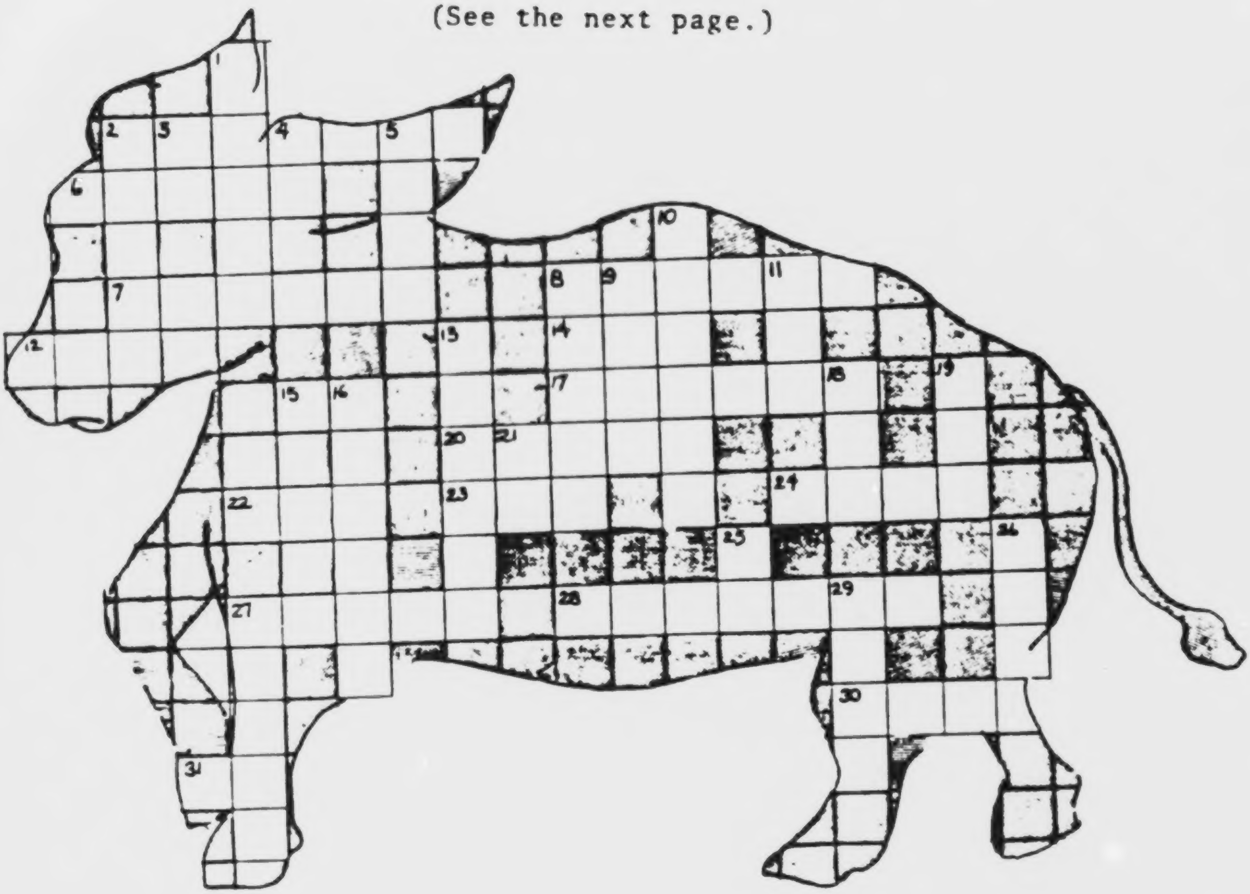
____ The tiger bit the water buffalo three times.

____ The water buffalo went to the tiger's den with a coat of straw.

____ The farmer was plowing a field with his water buffalo and the farmer became angry.

V. Water Buffalo Crossword Puzzle

(See the next page.)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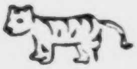
Water Buffalo Crossword Puzzle



(Fill in the squares on the
other page with the words
from this story.)

One day a _ _ _ _ _ _ 16 down was plowing his _ _ _ _ _ 27 across with his water _ _ _ _ _ _ _ 28 across. The field was muddy so the water buffalo moved very _ _ _ _ _ _ 8 across.

The farmer said, "You are _ _ 14 across slow! _ _ _ _ 9 down how quick and strong the tiger is. Why can't you be _ _ _ _ 29 down the tiger?"

" _ _ _ 19 down should I be like the tiger?" he said. "I am better than the tiger."

The farmer was very angry. He picked _ _ 4 down a stick in his _ _ _ _ 5 down and he beat the water buffalo. But the water buffalo wanted to show that he was better than the tiger. So they went to the tiger's _ _ _ 18 down.

The water buffalo told the tiger that his teeth were not _ _ _ _ _ _ 6 across enough. He said that he would come back in three days to fight with the tiger. " _ _ 21 down, ha, _ _ 3 down," laughed the tiger. " _ _ _ _ 25 down you come back, I will kill you." Then the water buffalo _ _ _ 12 across the farmer went home.

For one day, the farmer sharpened the water buffalo's _ _ _ _ _ 7 down. Then he tied _ _ _ _ _ _ 8 down on the water buffalo's back. Next, the water buffalo _ _ _ _ _ _ 17 across in the mud.

The water buffalo went to the tiger's den. The tiger came out _ _ 15 across his den. He stopped when he _ _ _ 23 across the water buffalo. He asked, "Why are you all covered with mud?"

"It _ _ 31 across summer time," said the water buffalo. "I am much _ _ _ _ _ _ 10 down after a mud bath."

Then the tiger said, "You will be a good dinner. I could have killed you three days ago. Now my teeth are very sharp. I will

_ _ _ _ you very easily."
30 across

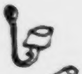
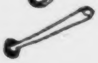
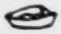
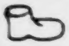
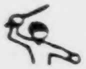
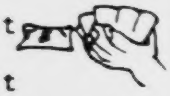
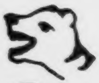
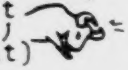
"Oh, no!" said the water buffalo and he began to _ _ _ _ _ his head. "I will _ _ _ _ down and you can bite me three times. Then you must let me butt you three times."
20 across · 11 down

The tiger _ _ _ _ _ _ _ _ at the water buffalo and bit him three times. The tiger _ _ _ _ _ _ _ _ _ that the water buffalo was dead. But he could _ _ _ _ _ bite the coat of straw and mud.
7 across · 2 across · 24 across

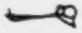
Then the water buffalo got up and butted the tiger three times. The _ _ _ _ _ _ time the tiger was rolled over on his back. The second time, the horns went through him. And the _ _ _ _ _ _ time the tiger was _ _ _ _ _ _ _ _ into the _ _ _ and he _ _ _ _ _ back to the ground dead.
27 down · 2 down · 13 down · 22 across · 26 down

VI. WORD STUDY (Do this with your teacher)

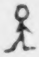
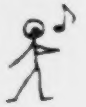
1

bait

bat

bought
boat

boot

beat

bet

bit
bite

butt
(but)


2

lie

lay
Lee

low
Liu

Lau

law
la


3

mud
muddy

4

farm
farmer

5

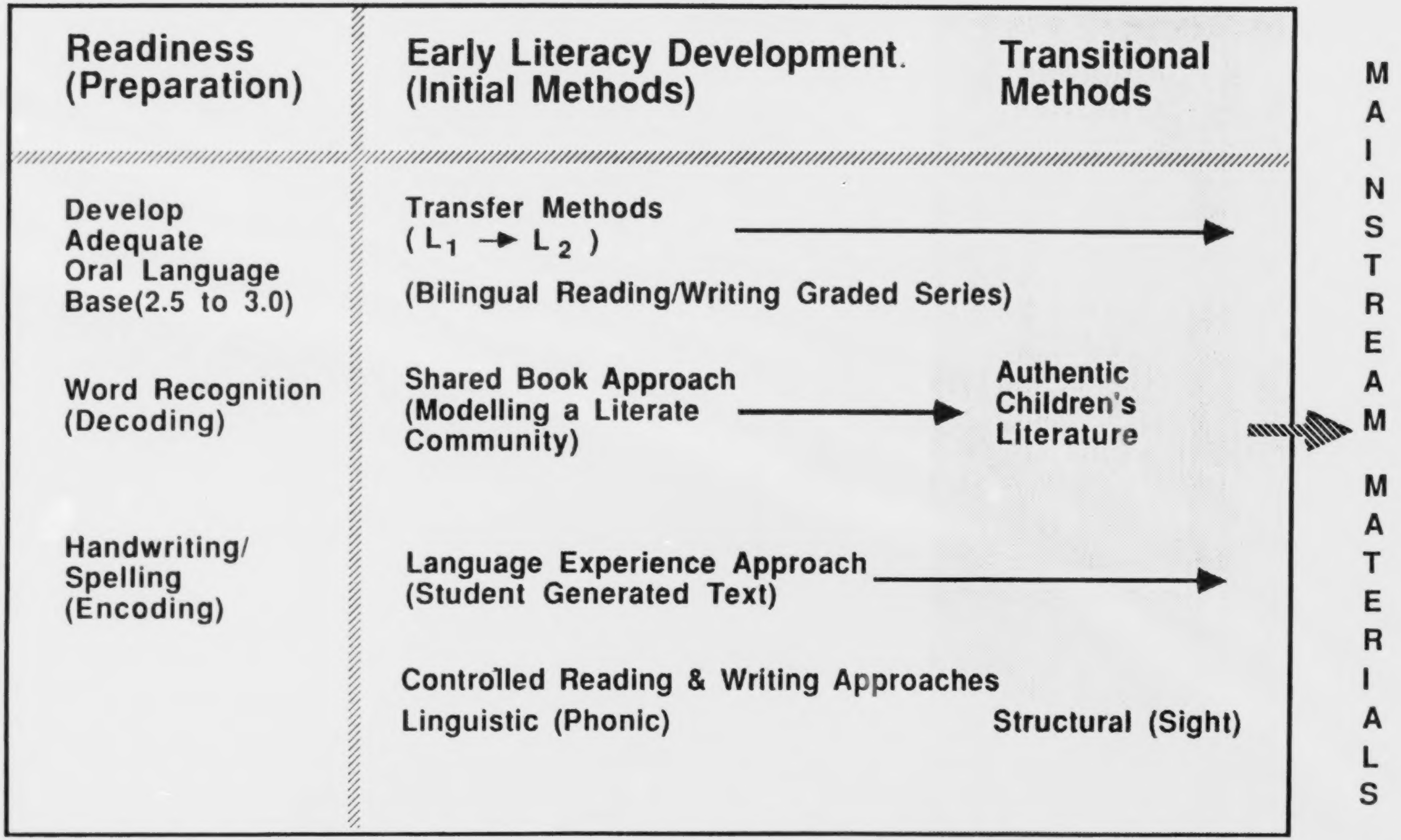
sharp
sharpen

Think About It:

What other animals help people?
Which one do you think helps people the most?

What other animals are good friends of people?
Which one do you think is the best friend of people?

LITERACY DEVELOPMENT FOR CLDE STUDENTS (K-8)



Readiness (Preparation)	Early Literacy Development. (Initial Methods)	Transitional Methods	
Develop Adequate Oral Language Base(2.5 to 3.0)	Transfer Methods ($L_1 \rightarrow L_2$) → (Bilingual Reading/Writing Graded Series)		MAINSTREAM MATERIALS
Word Recognition (Decoding)	Shared Book Approach (Modelling a Literate Community) →	Authentic Children's Literature ⇒	
Handwriting/ Spelling (Encoding)	Language Experience Approach (Student Generated Text) →		
	Controlled Reading & Writing Approaches Linguistic (Phonic)	Structural (Sight)	

Cloud, 1987

Activity

5. Accounting for Children's Learning Styles in the Teaching of Reading and Writing

- Read the following article by Dr. Marie Carbo --

  BE A MASTER READING TEACHER

- Take the *Reading Style Inventory* (pp. 42, 47). Describe your needs as a reader:

BE A MASTER READING TEACHER

You can teach reading more effectively than ever before by basing your instruction on students' learning style preferences

By Dr. Marie Carbo

FOR LEVELS K THROUGH 5

Anytime one, and only one reading method is used with an entire class of children, there is a very real possibility that some students will fail to learn to read. Young children must have the opportunity to learn to read through the methods and materials *they* prefer. Students who struggle, become frustrated and fail to read, will probably develop a dislike for reading that will be difficult, if not impossible, to overcome in later years. But when children learn to read through their individual learning styles, they have the very best chance to be successful readers.

A learning style is *how* a child responds to four major stimuli: environmental stimuli (preferred level of sound, light, temperature, preference for formal or informal design); emotional stimuli (kind of motivation, degree of persistence and responsibility, need for structure); sociological stimuli (preference for learning with peers, adults, in combinations, alone); and physical stimuli (perceptual preferences, need for intake and mobility, preferred time of day).

Children exhibit such a wide variety of learning styles that no single reading program can possibly be the best possible program for all of them. For example, many students, especially young boys, *require* mobility. These children can become discipline problems if they are forced to sit for long periods. But these *same* active youngsters can be happy and involved in learning when they're permitted the movement their bodies need. Such children concentrate and learn better when they read for short periods, play reading games, work with multisensory instructional packages, or read while sitting on pillows or rugs.

Learning styles vary; the phonics approach to reading may be appropriate for youngsters with auditory strengths who are adult-motivated and need a formal, structured reading program, *but*, phonics is a *poor* choice for children who like to work with friends, prefer informality, do not need structure and learn best through their visual/tactual/kinesthetic senses. These youngsters learn best through a language-experience approach employing supplementary materials such as story books, games, contract activity packages (CAPs — see January, '81 Portfolio on LSBI) and activity cards.

Follow these 10 simple steps and you'll be well on your way toward helping your students learn through their learning styles strengths and preferences.

Ten Beginning Steps For Teaching Reading Through Learning Styles

1) *Observe Your Students' Learning Styles.* Learn to observe the behavior of

your students using these questions as a guide. Is the child distracted by noise or able to read better where people are talking or music is playing? Does the youngster prefer to read in bright light (ceiling light or daylight) or dim (lamp light), in a warm or cool temperature, in an informal design (soft chairs, rugs) or a formal design (hard chairs in rows)?

Is the student motivated to read or are rewards needed? Can the child complete lengthy assignments? If not, is the child more comfortable with brief reading assignments checked often? Can the youngsters make choices or should choices be limited? Is retention increased when the child learns auditorially (listening), visually (seeing), tactually/kinesthetically (touching and feeling) and/or through more than one sense?

Does the child learn best alone, with peers, with a teacher, while eating, in the morning, in the afternoon, in the evening? Can the child sit for long periods or does he need to move about often?

2) *Administer a Test that Identifies Individual Learning Styles.* The learning styles of very young children can be identified with the *Learning Style Inventory: Primary Version* (LSI-P). For children in grade three and higher, the *Learning Style Inventory* (LSI) is appropriate. Each of these tests will give you detailed profiles of the learning styles of your students.

To learn specifically how to teach your students to read through their individual learning styles, administer the *Reading Style Inventory* (RSI), for second graders and those in higher grades. The test takes about 20-30 minutes and will provide you with a youngster's individual reading style profile as well as suggested reading methods and materials.

3) *Match Reading Methods and Learning Styles.* Vary the reading method you use with a child depending on his learning style. If no one method is successful with a child, then experiment by combining methods or designing new ones. Here are three reading instruction methods that are matched with specific learning styles.

Use the **language-experience** method when the student

—learns best through his visual and tactual senses

—enjoys working in an informal atmosphere

—can work when people are talking

—likes to work with peers and/or alone

—is motivated and persistent and needs little teacher direction

Use the **phonics method** when the student

—learns best through the auditory sense and can recall isolated sounds and blend them to form words

—enjoys working in a formal atmosphere

—is adult motivated

—can learn in a group and sit and attend for long periods

—needs to work with structured reading materials and needs teacher direction

Use the **individualized method** when the student

—has good visual memory and a good basic sight vocabulary

—is able to learn alone with minimal interaction with peers and teachers

—can make choices from many possibilities

—is not in need of structure and teacher direction

—does not need to work with structured materials and enjoys working in an informal atmosphere

4) *Create a Magic Carpet Area.* Section off an area of your room using tables, desks, files and/or bookcases as dividers. In this quiet area, place a rug and pillows on the floor and stock the corner with simple but high-interest books. You've just created a Magic Carpet area that's ideal for the child in need of informality, mobility and quiet.

5) *Provide Private-Work and Group-Work Areas.* Some youngsters enjoy reading alone while others like to read in small or large groups. Cardboard study carrels enable students to work privately while Magic Carpet areas permit more informal isolation. You may need both of these types of areas for the students in your classroom. Peer-oriented children can work in sectioned off areas that have chairs, couches and/or rugs. Cut down on the overall sound level by confining noisy activities to one section of your room, or to the hallway.

6) *Teach with Multisensory Materials.* Many young children are tactual/kinesthetic learners, they learn best when they can feel letters and words through their hands and bodies. Encourage your tactual/kinesthetic students to form letters with clay, sandpaper, beads, or in chocolate pudding.

Older tactual/kinesthetic learners can build models and projects following simple written and recorded directions. In this way, students see and hear written directions simultaneously, which increases their understanding and retention. Games, multisensory instructional packages and activity cards are other reading materials that accommodate the learning styles of tactual/kinesthetic children. You can make your own bingo, domino or card games to teach or review reading skills, and these materials allow movement as well as peer/adult interaction.

For youngsters who prefer to learn alone, multisensory instructional packages or MIPs, may be ideal. Each MIP teaches one concept, thoroughly, through four senses. The taped directions accompanying the MIP let the student work independently at a comfortable pace.

Activity cards can stimulate creative writing or provide short skills assignments (for a detailed explanation of these materials, see the following article). To make simple, effective writing activity cards, paste colorful, high-interest pictures on index cards and add stimulating questions. Store the activity cards in boxes or in clear plastic envelopes attached to the bulletin board. Then permit students to select an activity card and work alone, in a small group, or with a buddy.

7) *Provide Media.* Place a tape player and filmstrip viewer on a table or desk along with tape recorded lessons, books and filmstrips. Allow youngsters to work in a variety of groupings and at the times of day that are best for them. Activity cards help your children learn through their visual and auditory senses and pro-

vide repetition for those students who need it.

8) *Permit Healthy Snacks.* Children experience a variety of energy "highs" and "lows" just as adults do. Some youngsters will concentrate better if they're allowed to snack while working on their reading assignment. Let them bring in healthy snacks (carrot and celery sticks, fruit, etc.) to eat while they read. Do teach them to clean up after they finish their snacks, too.

9) *Enlist the Help of Tutors and Volunteers.* Older children, your youngsters' peers, and adults can read with your students, help them with projects, play games, check work, use flash cards, and provide encouragement. This type of small, informal group provides the peer/adult interaction and movement many young children need in order to learn. Encourage your students who've shown they enjoy helping others to read to younger children.

10) *Provide Sufficient Structure and Organization.* For youngsters who require structure, offer specific, brief directions and just a few clear, acceptable choices at any one time, for example:

"Johnny, do you want to work on your project alone or with a buddy?"

"Betty, here are two games to help you practice vowel sounds. Pick the one you like best. I'll be back in a few minutes to discuss the game with you."

Organize reading materials by color-coding, numbering, etc. For example, you may color-code phonics games this way: green-consonants, yellow-vowels, blue-blends, etc. Now number the games in order of difficulty within the color categories. Post simple rules for children to follow when playing the games —

Phonics Games

1) Take one game to the game table.
2) Play the game alone or with one or two friends.
3) When you're finished, return all game parts to the box.
4) Please return the game to this shelf.

Some of your unmotivated and/or adult-motivated students will need to have their work checked, praised, discussed and corrected frequently. Establish a definite time schedule so these youngsters know the time limit for completing their work and who will check it and when. Encourage children who need structure to work with just a few self-checking materials at first so their ability to work independently will grow.

To recap, here's a table that will help you form informal reading style diagnoses of your students. (See Figure 1.)

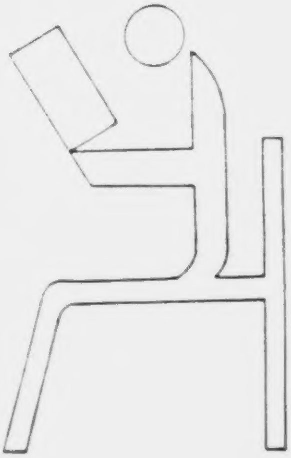
INFORMAL READING STYLE DIAGNOSIS

Observation	Reading Style Diagnosis	Suggested Teaching Strategy
THE STUDENT	THE STUDENT	THE TEACHER SHOULD
looks up from his work at a slight noise, places hands over ears, tries to quiet others	prefers quiet	provide a quiet work place such as a study carrel or Magic Carpet area
is restless and moves in his seat	prefers informal design	allow the student to sit on a pillow, carpeting, and/or move around
continually asks for teacher approval, gives up easily	not persistent or responsible	give short assignments, check them frequently, try a programmed learning sequence
is confused when offered several choices	requires structure	try clear, simple directions and a structured reading approach such as a basal reader and workbook
shies away from others and performs best when working alone	prefers working alone	provide independent activities such as a programmed learning sequence or tape recorded books; slowly encourage the child to work with one or two friends

Figure 1

Continued

Informal observation and diagnosis is, of course, useful, but for a formal diagnosis of a student's reading style, administer the *Reading Style Inventory* (RSI). The inventory has 52 items and will provide you with specific information on all 18 learning style elements as they relate to reading, suggestions for designing reading methods and selecting the best read-



INFORMAL READING STYLE DIAGNOSIS

Observation	Reading Style Diagnosis	Suggested Teaching Strategy
THE STUDENT	THE STUDENT:	THE TEACHER SHOULD
confuses words that look alike ("stop and "spot"), reverses words ("saw" and "was") and letters ("b and "d")	does not prefer visual stimuli	try a reading strategy that emphasizes a phonics approach learned primarily through the tactual/kinesthetic/auditory senses
confuses similar sounding words ("pot" "pit" "pat"), has difficulty remembering directions and stories	does not prefer auditory stimuli	try a whole-word reading strategy such as language experience learned primarily through the tactual/kinesthetic/visual senses
enjoys learning by touching, remembers words after tracing over them and "feeling" them	prefers tactual/kinesthetic stimuli	use clay, sandpaper, etc. to form words, try games, model building, projects
continually asks if it is lunch time or snack time	prefers intake	permit healthy snacks during work periods

ing materials for a particular child are also given. A teacher may read the RSI to any student who cannot read the test independently. The RSI takes 20-30 minutes to administer. The following are sample questions from the RSI:

Reading Style Inventory*
By Marie Carbo, Ed.D.

Directions: Think about yourself when you are reading to understand something.

Look at the first group of boxes. Read each box. Decide which of the three boxes describes YOU the best. Then mark an "X" across that one box. Continue in this way until you finish.

SOUND

a) I read best where there are people talking.

b) I read best where it's quiet with no people talking.

c) I read about the same where it's quiet or where there are people talking. Talking doesn't bother me when I read.

WHERE I READ

a) When I read, I like to sit on a hard chair at a desk.

b) When I read, I like to sit on something soft, like pillows, a soft chair, or a rug.

c) When I read, I usually sit in different places. Sometimes I like a hard chair and sometimes I like a soft chair.

HOW I LIKE TO WORK

a) I don't like to be told what to read. I like to make my own choices!

b) I like my teacher to tell me what to read.

c) Sometimes I like my teacher to tell me what to read. Other times I like to choose what I read.

a) I like my work checked as soon as I finish it.

b) I like my work checked about one or two days after I finish it.

c) It's not important to me to have my work checked often.

HOW I LEARN
(Listening)

c) If someone tells me a phone number, it's easy for me to remember it.

d) If someone tells me a phone number, it's hard for me to remember it.

e) It's easy for me to remember rules about sounding out words.

f) It's hard for me to remember rules about sounding out words.

g) If I stop to sound out new words, I sometimes forget what I'm reading.

h) It's easy for me to sound out new words and remember what I'm reading.

HOW I LEARN
(Seeing)

e) It's hard for me to copy from the board.

f) It's easy for me to copy from the board.

g) When I write words, sometimes I mix up the letters.

h) When I write words, I almost never mix up the letters.

i) I almost never lose my place on the page when I'm reading.

j) I often lose my place on the page when I'm reading.

k) When I see words, sometimes I mix up letters like "b" and "d."

l) When I see words, I almost never mix up letters like "b" and "d."

HOW I LEARN
(Touching)

a) Tracing over a word with my finger would not help me to remember it.

b) Tracing over a word with my finger would help me to remember it.

c) When I'm not sure how to spell a word, it helps me if I write it down.

d) When I'm not sure how to spell a word, it doesn't help me if I write it down.

e) It's easy for me to read stories I write myself.

f) It's hard for me to read stories I write myself.

g) Typing words would help me to remember them.

h) Typing words would not help me to remember them.

Continued on page 47

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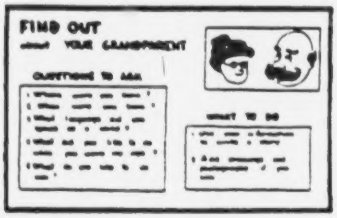
* *The Reading Style Inventory* (copyright Marie Carbo 1980) is based on the *Learning Style Inventory* (Dunn, Dunn, Price, copyright 1975, 1978).

favorite foods?" or "Write about your favorite friend" are examples of idea stimulators. Or, try writing only the beginning of a story on an index card and ask a child to continue it.

TAKE - HOME ACTIVITY CARD



Children can complete simple, satisfying projects following directions provided on take-home activity cards. Compiling a book of family pictures or interviewing family members are just two ideas for take-homes.

By creating a large variety of activity cards you can satisfy every interest, ability and learning style of each of your students. Inexpensive commercial activity cards can be just the start of your own varied collection; you can color commercial cards with marking pens in bright colors and then laminate them or cover with clear contact paper.

Easily made global reading materials can help you teach young children *the way they learn most naturally*. These deceptively simple, easy-to-tailor games will help your students learn to read easily and, best of all, with zest and enthusiasm. ⚓

To order a specimen set of the Reading Style Inventory, send $15.00 plus a $1.00 postage to: Dr. M. Carbo, P.O. Box 41, Williston Park, N.Y. 11596. The specimen set includes the RSI test, teacher's manual, answer sheet and Reading Interest Inventory.

All the sample activity cards reproduced in this article are drawn from the "Happy To Be Me!" series published by World Record Publications, Box 41, Williston Park, N.Y. 11596.

To order an instructional tape and manual that will help you create your own book tapes, send $15.00 plus $1.00 postage to Dr. M. Carbo, 403 Titus Way, E. Williston, N.Y. 11596. The manual includes techniques for reading to a group and to individual children; achieving the correct pace and rate; determining the amount to read; organizing tapes (color-coding and selecting), suggested books to tape, etc.

BE A MASTER . . .

Continued from page 42

MOVING

a) I like to read for just a few minutes. Then I have to get up and move around.

b) I like to read for a long time without getting up at all.

c) I like to read for a short time. Then I like to get up and move around.

After a student marks his reading style preferences on the RSI, the information is transferred to a computer sheet which then provides a Reading Style Profile and suggested reading programs and commercial materials, as well as a description of the methods and materials that are *not* recommended.

With practice, you'll find you can become quite a skilled observer of reading styles, matching reading methods and learning styles, creating room areas and using multisensory materials — you'll probably find that more of your students become enthusiastic and successful readers, too.

Both the informal and formal assessment techniques I've outlined can help sharpen your observation and analytical skills. It really is a thrill to design a reading method for a student who seems on the brink of failure and then to watch that youngster learn and blossom.

Diagnosis of reading style can help you increase a youngster's chance for early success in reading. It enables you to intervene effectively so that your students do not have to experience failure and extensive remediation. *You* can make the difference! ⚓

The author is an Adjunct Assistant Professor at St. John's University, Jamaica, N.Y. Dr. Carbo was also the recipient of the 1980 ASCD (Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development) Dissertation Award for her study of reading and perception.

A high school volunteer in the Future Teachers of America program, donates a free period of her time to help these two youngsters learn sight-words.

A student-made, cardboard box fireplace helps to create this snug, quiet, Magic Carpet area.

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C. Materials Bibliographies

1. Second Language Oral Skills Development Materials Bibliography

Accent (Pronunciation)/Phonology

Pronunciation Exercises in English *Sound & Rhythm*	Regents Publishing Co 2 Park Avenue New York, N.Y. 10016
Survival Pronunciation (Student Book, Teacher's Guide)	Alemany Press 2501 Industrial Pkway, West, Dept.P.R. Hayward, CA 94545
Drills & Exercises in English Pronunciation (1967 series) (Stress & Intonation Part 1, 2) (Consonant & Vowel)	Macmillan Publishing Co. 1829 Underwood Blvd. Unit #2 Delran, New Jersey 08075

Grammar/Syntax

•*See It/Say It* (also available in Spanish: Ver-Hablar) (Reg. Verbs) (Irreg. Verbs)	Addison-Wesley Publishing Co. Route 128 Reading, MA 01867
**Jazz Chants* (Student Book, Cassette) **Jazz Chants for Children* (Student Book, Teacher's Edition, Cassette) *Small Talk* (Student Book, Cassette)	Oxford University Press 200 Madison Avenue New York, N.Y. 10016
**Tune Into English* (2 Cassettes) *Skits In English* *Tests & Drills In English Grammar* (Book 1, 2) *Graded Exercises In English*	Regents Publishing Co. 2 Park Avenue New York, N.Y. 10016

**Word Ways Games* (Cubes, Gameboards, Game Cards) *Survival Vocabularies Workbooks*	Alemany Press 2501 Industrial Pkway. W. Dept. P.R. Hayward, CA 94545
Newby Visual Language *Adjectives Workbooks* *Idioms Workbooks* *Life Concepts* *Partatives Workbooks* *Prepositions Workbooks* *Pronouns Workbooks* *Verbs Workbooks*	Dormac Inc. P.O. Box 1699 Beaverton, OR 97075-1699
Fokes Sentence Builder	DLM Teaching Resources P.O. Box 4000 One DLM Park Allen, TX 75002

Vocabulary/Lexicon

**Longman Photo Dictionary* (Paperback) (Hardcover)	Longman, Inc. 95 Madison Avenue White Plains, N.Y. 10601
**TPR Board* (The Home) (The Farm) (The Kitchen) (The Classroom) (The Airport) (The Supermarket), etc.	Sky Oaks Productions, Inc. P.O. Box 1102 Los Gatos, CA 95031
**Oxford Picture Dictionary of American English* (Monolingual English) (English/Spanish) (French Indexed) (Beginners Workbook) (Intermediate Workbook) **Open Sesame Picture Dictionary* (Paperback (Hardcover)	Oxford University Press 200 Madison Avenue New York, N. Y. 10016
**Addison-Wesley Picture Dictionary*	Addison-Wesley Publishing Co. Route 128 Reading, MA 01867
Lexicary (Also available--Lexicary Wordlists in Spanish) (Wordlists in Spanish)	Pro Lingua, Assoc. 15 Elm Street Brattelboro, VT 05301

Vocabulary Games Series *(Beginner, Intermediate, Advanced)* *Practical Vocabulary Builder* *Language Visuals*	National Textbook Co. 4255 West Touhy Avenue Lincolnwood, IL 60646
•*All Purpose Photo Library* *(Set 1, Set 2)*	DLM Teaching Resources P.O. Box 4000 One DLM Park Allen, TX 75002
Pictures That Teach Series (Duplicating Masters) *Pictures That Teach Words* *Pictures That Teach Ideas* *Pictures That Teach Science* *Necessary Words to Live By*	Easy Aids, Inc. 256 S. Robertson Blvd. Beverly Hills, CA 90211
Word, Words, Words (Book 1, 2)	Regents Publishing Co. Inc. 2 Park Avenue New York, N.Y. 10016

Fluency/Ease of Production

•*Sharing A Song* (Book) (Audio Pack) (Activity Pack) *Springboards*	Addison-Wesley Publishing Co. Route 128 Reading, MA 01867
**Purple Cows & Potato Chips* **Games For Pairwork* **Back & Forth: Pair Activities For Language Development*	Alemany Press 2501 Industrial Pkwy., West, Dept. P.R. Hayward, CA 94545
Picture It	Regents Publishing Co. Inc. 2 Park Avenue New York, N.Y. 10016
Picture Cards That Build Stories *More Picture Cards That Build Stories*	Easy Aids, Inc. P.O. Box 4000 Beverly Hills, CA 90211
Sequence Picture Cards *(Level 1 Set 1)* *(Level 1 Set 2)* *(Level 2 Set 1)*	DLM Teaching Resources P.O. Box 4000 One DLM Park Allen, TX 75002
Sequential Picture Cards *(I)* *(II, III, IV)*	

Listening Comprehension

**Beginning English Through Actions(B.E.T.A.)*	Addison-Wesley Publishing Co. Route 128 Reading, MA 01867
Action English Pictures **Live Action English* (Student/Teacher Text) (2 Cassettes) *The Children's Response* *Before The Bell Rings*	Alemany Press 2501 Industrial Pkwy., West, Dept. P.R. Hayward, CA 94545
Listen For It (Student Book) (3 Cassettes) (Teacher's Guide)	Oxford University Press 200 Madison Avenue New York, N. Y. 10016

Comprehensive Skills Development Programs

•IDEA & Oral Language Program *in English* (Handbook) *in Portuguese* (Handbook) *in Spanish* (Handbook)	Ballard & Tighe, Inc. 480 Atlas Street Brea, CA 92621
•The Rainbow Collection	Santillana 257 Union Street Northvale, NJ 07647

Nancy Cloud, March, 1987

2. Second Language Reading Skills Development Materials Bibliography

Word Recognition

**Survival Vocabularies Workbook* *Sign Language Workbook* *Sound Easy Series* Classpack: (Consonants) (Initial Clusters) (Final Clusters)	Alemany Press 2501 Industrial Pkway.W. Dept. P.R. Hayward, CA 94545
**Oxford Picture Dictionary of American English and Workbook* (Monolingual English) (English/Spanish) (French Indexed) (Beginners Workbook) (Intermidiate Workbook)	Oxford University Press 200 Madison Avenue New York, N.Y. 10016
**Longman Photo Dictionary* (Paperback) (Hardcover)	Longman, Inc. 95 Church St. White Plains, N.Y. 10601
**Addison-Wesley Picture Dictionary*	Addison-Wesley Publishing Co. Route 128 Reading, MA 01867
Many Meanings (Books 1, 2, and 3) *Basic Vocabulary* *Study Cards* - Unit 1 (30 sets) *Study Cards* - Unit 2 (20 sets) *My Words* (10 Workbooks) *Vocabulary in Context* Vocabulary Workbooks Level B Spelling Workbooks Level B	Dormac Inc. P.O. Box 1699 Beaverton, OR 97075-1699

Tutorette Audiocard Program *-Reading for Everyday Living* Reading the Ads Buying Food Buying Clothes Money & Banks	Midwest Visual Equipment Co. 6500 N. Hamlin Avenue Chicago, IL 60645

Prediction/Confirmation

This is the Way I Go *Can You Do This?* *•Predicatable Storybooks* *(Set 1, Set 2)* **Developmental Storybooks* *(Set 1, Set 2)*	DLM Teaching Resources P.O. Box 4000 One DLM Park Allen, TX 75002
Oxford Graded Readers *- junior, 500 base word level* (Hansel and Gretel, Goldilocks and the Three Bears, The Happy Dragon, The Ugly Duckling, The Three Goats and the Dwarf) *- junior, 750 base word level* (Snow-White and Rose-Red, Red Shoes, The Tin Soldier, Sleeping Beauty and Bluebeard)	Oxford University Press 200 Madison Avenue New York, N.Y. 10016
Big Books (many titles available) **The Story Box* Hairy Bear, Mrs. Wishy Washy, Smarty Pants, The Red Rose, Who Will Be My Mother? (each Big Book) (each 6 Pack) Evaluation Pack: (1 big book, 1 small version of same, Teacher Guide, Assortment of 5 little books)	The Wright Group 10949 Technology Place P.O. Box 27780 San Diego, CA 92127
•Theme Packs (Select Theme: Animals, Food, Family, School)	Josten Learning Systems 800 East Business Center Dr. Mt. Prospect, IL 60056
•Spanish Big Books (4 Big Books, 48 Small Books) (2 Big Books, 24 Small Books)	Basic Plus 97 Cresta Verde Dr., Rolling Hills Estate,CA 90274

*The Monster Books (Set 1, Set 2)	Bowmar/Noble Publishers P.O. Box 2538 1901 North Walnut Avenue Oklahoma City, OK 73125
Read-A-Long With *The Story Teller* *(only available in Portuguese)*	National Textbook Co. 4255 W. Touhy Avenue Lincolnwood, IL 60646
•*Celebration: Festivities for Reading* Orientation Manual and Exercise Sheets in Binder Reader Sample Set (1 each of 4 readers)	Alemany Press 2501 Industrial Pkway.W. Dept. P.R. Hayward, CA 94545

Reading Comprehension

*Apple Tree Story Books and Workbooks (30 books) *Reading Milestones* (8 Readers & 8 Workbooks)	Dormac, Inc. P.O. Box 1699 Beaverton, OR 97075-1699
Longman Structural *Readers (Horizontal) & Workbooks* -*Stage 1* (Handy Pack: 1 @ of 12 titles) -*Stage 2* (Handy Pack: 1 @ of 12 titles)	Longman, Inc. 95 Church St. White Plains, N.Y. 10601

3. Second Language Writing Skills Development Materials Bibliography

Vocabulary

*_Composition Through Pictures_ *_Beginning Composition Through Pictures_	Longman, Inc. 95 Church St. White Plains, N.Y. 10601

Organization

*_Ready to Write_	Longman, Inc. 95 Church St. White Plains, N.Y. 10601
Elementary Composition Practice (Book 1, 2)	Newbury House Publishing, Inc. 54 Warehouse Howley, MASS 01969
Think and Write (Starting Out) (Sentences) (Simple Paragraphs) (Types of Paragraphs) (Composition)	DLM Teaching Resources P.O. Box 4000 One DLM Park Allen, TX 75002

Language Use (Grammar)

*See It/Write It	Addison-Wesley Publishing Co. Route 128 Reading, MA 01867
*Composition Guided Free (Program 1 - 8) (Teacher Manual)	Teachers College Press Columbia University 1234 Amsterdam Avenue New York, N.Y. 10027
*Drawing Out	Alemany Press 2501 Industrial Pkway. W. Dept. P.R. Hayward, CA 94545

Mechanics (Spelling, Punctuation, Capitalization, Handwriting)

*Writing American English Single Copy Class Set (10 copies)	Alemany Press 2501 Industrial Pkway. W. Dept. P.R. Hayward, CA 94545

REFERENCE BOOKS

Asher, James J. **Learning Another Language Through Actions: The Complete Teachers Guide Book** $12.95

Publisher:
Sky Oaks Productions, Inc.
P.O. Box 1102
Los Gatos, CA 95031

Mattes/Omark **Speech and Language Assessment for the Bilingual Handicapped Child** $15.00

Omark/Erickson **The Bilingual Exceptional Child** $29.50

Publisher:
College-Hill Press
4284 41st. St.
San Diego, CA 92105

Ventriglia, Linda **Conversations of Miguel and Maria: How Children Learn A Second Language** $11.96

Mohan, Bernard **Language and Content** $11.96

Publisher:
Addision-Wesley Publishing Co.
Reading, MA 01867

Krashen, Stephen D. **Principles and Practice in Second Language Acquisition** $12.95

Krashen,S and Terrel, T. **The Natural Approach: Language Acquisition in the Classroom** $11.95

Dixon, C. N. and Nessel, D. **Language Experience Approach to Reading (and Writing)**
$11.95

Publisher:
Alemany Press
2501 Industrial Parkway, W.
Dept. PR
Hayward, CA 94545

Cummins, J. Bilingualism and Special Education $13.00

Publisher:
Bilingual Review/Press
Hispanic Research Center
Arizona State University
Tempe, AZ 85287

Figueroa, R. A. The Bilingual Special Education Dictionary $11.95

Publisher:
National Hispanic University
255 E. 14th St.
Oakland, CA 94606

Chinn, P. C. (Ed.). Education of Culturally and Linguistically Different Exceptional Children $10.00

Johnson, M. J., & Ramirez, B. A. American Indian Exceptional Children and Youth $8.50

Kitano, M. K., & Chinn, P. C. (Eds.). Exceptional Asian Children and Youth $9.00

Plata, M. Assessment, Placement, and Programming of Bilingual Exceptional Pupils: A Practical Approach $8.00

Ramirez, B., & Ortiz, A. A. School and the Culturally Diverse Exceptional Student: Promising Practices and Future Directions $17.00

Publisher:
Council for Exceptional Children
1920 Association Drive, Dept. 8
Reston, VA 22091-1589

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MULTISYSTEM

Language Minority Parent Involvement

Intent of the Module

This module is designed to assist service providers in assuring meaningful school involvement and providing home support to language minority parents of children with disabilities. It will focus on cross-cultural child-rearing practices and factors to consider in planning parent involvement programs for culturally and linguistically diverse parents. Strategies for communicating with language minority parents and promising practices for informing, involving and supporting language minority parents of special needs children will be explored.

My childhood experiences came from participation in a regular special education program where I was one of a handful of Spanish monolingual children. From the beginning I was faced with conflicting expectations. The English-speaking dominant culture of the school often vividly contrasted with my home culture. As a handicapped individual, I was caught between two value systems and fought desperately for acceptance in both. My family and I struggled to retain my Spanish identity while I was also trying to meet the success standards at a school set up by a culture totally foreign to me. This precarious position placed heavy demands on me as a child. A handicapped youngster must have extraordinary coping abilities in such a situation.

Hiram Zayas
Project Access, 1980

Born in Puerto Rico, Mr. Zayas grew up in the Lathrop Homes Project in Chicago and knows intimately the struggle of exceptional individuals toward educational opportunity, dignity and success. A national and international consultant in the field of rehabilitation, Mr. Zayas is a dynamic and articulate spokesman for the rights of individuals with disabilities. He has served as Chairman of the Board of *Fiesta Educativa* and as Assistant State Chairman for the White House Conference on the Handicapped. He is President of his own company, Rehab Consulting, Inc., in Chicago, which provides consulting services on rehabilitation throughout the country.

Language Minority Parent Involvement/ Introduction

MULTISYSTEM

I. Introduction to the Module

A. Introductory Activity: Interpreting Parent Messages

1. For the next five minutes, reflect upon messages you received as a child from your parents or other significant adults in your life. (e.g., "You must never question your parents'/spouse's decision in public;" "You should always be ready to welcome guests into your home;" "Dime con quien andas y te diré quien eres," etc.).

2. List eight of these messages on the worksheet.

3. As you see fit, share these parent messages with the group. Your messages and the messages of your classmates will be recorded on newsprint or the blackboard.

4. Describe the impact the messages you listed have had on your adult life.

5. Identify values underlying each message listed and compare and contrast the commonalities and differences among the culturally-based values given.

6. What do you feel is the importance of parent messages, both verbal and nonverbal, on the formation of adult personalities?

Worksheet: Important Parent Messages

(If you give messages in a language other than English, please provide a translation.)

1. ____________________

2. ____________________

3. ____________________

4. ____________________

5. ____________________

6. ____________________

7. ____________________

8. ____________________

B. Implications of Cross-Cultural Childrearing Practices on Student's School Performance

Childrearing practices play an important role in personality formation. Teachers need to explore this area in order to enhance their teaching and improve student learning. Although there are universal elements in childrearing, such as expectations about children walking and learning to talk, even in these areas, there are cultural variations in the expected age at which these skills should be developed. As early as four months of age, anthropologists have observed variations in infants' behaviors from one culture to another. The household structure, including the physical environment, daily routines, and roles assigned to children all influence the kind of social behavior a child from a particular culture will exhibit and the underlying cultural values that have been transmitted.

For example, in traditional Chinese culture, parents are extremely careful and cautious with their young children. Infants are breast fed whenever they indicate a need. A Chinese baby is usually carried on his/her mother's back and will sleep in the parent's bed. Children are encouraged to be very attached to their mothers. The infant's body, which is seen as delicate, is frequently examined. The baby is bundled and herbs are often given to the baby even when no sickness prevails. Toilet training is very permissive. Parental attitudes change dramatically when a child reaches age six and is about to enter school. At that point, a stricter discipline is imposed and children are expected to help with housework and with the care of their younger siblings. Family privacy is stressed and boys and girls become separated, yet social independence of adolescents from their families is discouraged (Tseng & Hsu, 1970).

A second example of childrearing practices that differ greatly from middle class American practices occurs in Bali. The Balinese practice a childrearing pattern that encourages passivity. Children are treated as puppets and are initially carried in slings with their right hands bound to their sides. They are taught to speak by imitating phrases repeated by their parents or other significant adults. Gestures are taught by having an adult move the child's body parts until the child can move it appropriately on his/her own. Children are taught passivity, modeling, and limp plasticity. Mothers are taught to continuously tease the children and then ignore them in order to further develop tolerance and passivity (Howard, 1972).

Contrastive studies in childrearing practices have been conducted by Caudill & Schooler (1973). They conducted a cross-cultural longitudinal study of infant and mother behavior in Japan and the U.S. Their conclusions were that American mothers seem to encourage their children to be active and vocally responsive. In contrast, Japanese mothers encourage their children to be passive and quiet. While American mothers viewed their babies as separate entities from themselves, Japanese mothers viewed their infants as extensions of themselves.

Steward & Steward (1973) studied how Anglo-American, Chinese-American, and Mexican-American mothers taught their children standard tasks. Their conclusions were that middle class Anglo-American mothers were very active in their teaching style. They spent time giving frequent verbal feedback and instructions. In contrast, Chinese-American mothers gave fewer, but more specific, instructions and provided a great deal of positive feedback. Unlike the other two groups, the Mexican-American mothers were more apt to give indirect or nonverbal instructions. Thus, the way in which parents interact in a teaching role with their children varies from culture to culture.

Many cultures differ from the middle class, American childrearing emphasis on *autonomy, individuality,* and *independence*. Many culturally diverse children are products of a rural, non-technological, agricultural environment where extended families are needed and valued. *Group identity, interdependence* and *cooperation* are emphasized as children are raised. When such families encounter the predominant childrearing practices in the United States, cultural conflict and family crisis may occur.

Educators, recognizing the important role that child development has on school performance, must address the following key issues with cross-cultural understanding (Werner, 1979, p. 4):

1. The biological, psychological, and social constancies in the behavior and development of young children.

2. The interrelationship among biological, cognitive, and social processes that shape the early development of children.

3. The constraints set by the ecological, economic, social, and political systems of societies on the behavior of children and their caretakers.
4. The adaptive significance of childrearing goals and practices across a wide range of cultures.
5. The rate and direction of behavioral change in children and their caretakers under conditions of rapid social change.

Activity

Introduction:

Please note that the interpretation of the Spanish-speaking mother's responses is not of the best quality. Mrs. Enriquez requested that her child's teacher, Mrs. Brito, serve as interpreter because of the respect and warm relationship she established with her. Because of the inherent difficulty of interpreting "on the spot" and because the classroom teacher was not a professional interpreter, many of the translations given are not exact reflections of the content of the mother's responses, which were more eloquently articulated in her first language. It is hoped that participants will be able to overcome the limitation introduced by the teacher's well-intended interpretation and focus instead on the important content of dialog to be shared.

A. View the 45-minute Videotape:

"Different Views: Minority Mothers Discuss Family Lifestyles in the Context of American Education"*

Note your reactions to the issues discussed on the worksheet provided.

B. Following the video, discuss the following points in small groups:

1. Discuss specific values reflected by the mothers in the video that appear to be different from values generally encouraged in mainstream American classrooms.
    a. Which values were reflected from which cultural group(s)?
    b. In what ways can these value differences between school and home affect the child, the family, and the school?

*Note Film produced by Patricia Landurand, Project Director of the Institute for Change, Dean's Grant Project, Grant No G-008101785 Multicultural Special Education, Regis College, 235 Wellesley Street, Weston, MA 02193 Permission to use this film has been granted

2. Give examples of childrearing practices which were shared in the videotape

   a. State each practice and the cultural group(s) of origin.

   b. Compare and contrast each practice with practices commonly adhered to in mainstream American culture.

   c. Discuss the implications of these cross-cultural differences for children's behaviors in classroom settings.

ACTIVITY

After you have viewed the Parent tape ......

Issues	Reactions/Comments
Expectations in coming to the U.S.	
Definition of "family"	
Decision - making	
Maintenance of cultural values	
Value of work/play	
Valued careers/ occupations	
Child's obligations to the family	
Parent messages	

ACTIVITY *(cont'd)*

Demonstration of respect	
Forms of discipline	
Meaning of "time"	
Purpose of education	
Meaning of "good" teacher/ teaching	
What would change about U.S. education	
Definitions of a "beautiful" woman	

C. Attitudes of Parents Toward Their Exceptional Children

Parents, in general, share the following common parenting goals: the physical survival and health of their child, the development of their child's capacity for economic self-maintenance, and the attainment of other life goals such as prestige, intellectual achievement, and wealth, as culturally defined by the group's belief system. Initially, the physical survival and health of the child can be expected to be of greatest concern to parents. These concerns have become less of an issue for middle and upper class parents, yet they still remain a critical issue for low-income populations who face high infant mortality rates and basic limitations in health care. Given that physical survival and health issues present widespread problems to low-income households and given that many culturally diverse families can be classified as low income, it is apparent that already stressful conditions in the family are further exacerbated when a child with exceptional needs is born (Baca and Chinn, 1980).

Parents react differently to the birth or the diagnosis of a child with a disability. It has typically been assumed that many parents may be experiencing feelings such as fear, guilt, anger, resentment, or despair with respect to their child being exceptional (Seligman, 1980). However, the feelings parents experience will be determined and need to be understood and interpreted in light of cultural, linguistic, and socioeconomic factors. One three-year study (Marion & McCaslin, 1979) has served to substantiate the fact that many parents of culturally diverse handicapped children are not consumed with the same strong feelings as those that overwhelm parents from the majority culture. Frequently, minority parents have not experienced shock, disbelief or depression. Children whom the school classifies as mildly disabled may not be identified as "disabled" by family members who instead will relate normally to the child. In addition, family members from specific cultural groups or religious backgrounds may view a child with severe impairments as "the work of God" and view the family as having been given total responsibility for the child by God (Landurand, 1984). In these cases, the desire of school personnel to be involved as decision-makers about the child's future may be cause for concern among family members, who perceive it as their sole responsibility.

Because there appears to be considerable evidence that the attitudes of parents have a significant impact on the self-perception of their children (Ausubel, 1963), it becomes important that educators understand and positively influence parents' attitudes toward their child with exceptional needs. Literature on attitudes of parents of exceptional children in the U.S. indicates that parents' attitudes have important implications as to how the exceptional child develops. From an historical perspective the research of Samagh, Eyman & Dingmans (1966) is important to note. They administered *The Parent Attitude Research Instrument* to 96 mothers who were seeking admission for their retarded children into institutions. The results showed that parents' attitudes toward expressing their need for help, along with education and socio-economic status, were positively related to how quickly their child received help. They also found that the earlier children received intervention, the less impact their child's handicap had on his/her development. Buscaglia (1982), who is bilingual and suffered from being erroneously labelled mentally retarded as a child, asserted that in great measure, the disabled child's approach to life depends upon the parent's sensitivity, attitudes towards and acceptance of the disability as well as expectations for the child.

Some major variables researchers have documented regarding child characteristics which influence parental attitudes have been: 1) birth order, 2) whether the disability is physical or mental, and 3) the degree of the child's impairment (Marion, 1982). Another variable that has greatly influenced parents' attitudes toward their children with exceptional needs is religion. Zuk, et al., (1961) found that mothers who rated themselves higher with respect to religious practice demonstrated more accepting attitudes toward their exceptional child. Hoffman (1965) suggested that Catholics were more accepting of their exceptional child. His explanation was that Catholics accept suffering as a part of life and this made the existence of exceptionality more tolerable.

Parents' support systems have also played a role in shaping their attitudes, particularly during the different stages of accepting their child's disability. If the support systems used by parents during these stages successfully help them to accept their child, then more positive attitudes develop. Parent reactions to the birth of their exceptional child generally follow the stages of shock, denial, grief, guilt, inadequacy, anger/depression, and finally acceptance and coping. During these stages, support systems are needed. They are also particularly needed during six critical periods (Hammer, 1973) through which parents pass in the life of their exceptional child.

These periods are:

1. At birth or at the point of suspicion of the handicap,
2. At the time of diagnosis and treatment,
3. As the child nears age for school placement,
4. As the child nears puberty,
5. At the time for vocational planning,
6. As the parents get older and realize their child will outlive them.

If positive support systems are not available during these periods, exceptional children are at high risk of being adversely affected to varying degrees.

While all families of exceptional children experience the stresses of everyday living with their children with disabilities, culturally and linguistically diverse parents must cope with additional stresses. For many minority families, health care and survival needs are paramount. In addition, culturally and linguistically diverse (CLD) families experience the stress of adapting to a second culture whose values differ greatly from their own. Not understanding or feeling comfortable with the support systems available in American society, CLD families often don't receive the help routinely given to families from the majority culture. Not having access to the dominant language creates further frustration for the CLD family in negotiating with the majority culture. The stresses related to social class, ethnic and language discrimination and handicappism combine and profoundly influence the attitudes CLD families will develop toward their children with disabilities.

Parents' attitudes toward their exceptional children are influenced, in great measure, by their knowledge about the children's disability(ies). As the primary caretaker, the parent has a right to understand the child's diagnoses and recommended treatment. In most cases, parents know their children better than anyone else, and, therefore, are important members who can greatly contribute to children's diagnoses and development.

Although much research has been conducted involving attitudes of monolingual English-speaking parents in the U.S. toward their children with exceptional needs, little if any research has been conducted involving attitudes of culturally diverse parents toward their exceptional children (Marion, 1982; Rodriguez, 1983).

D. A Family Systems Perspective

According to Roberts (no date), family reaction to a member's disability is influenced by a number of variables: 1) the ***structure*** of the family both before and after the onset of the disability, 2) the ***interface*** of the family with the extended family and the community at large, 3) the nature and onset of the ***disability***, 4) ***family belief systems***, and 5) the ***affective responses*** of its members.

1. Structure of the Family

The family must reorganize to adjust to the needs of their child with disabilities. If the family is functioning well prior to the awareness of the disability or prior to the birth of a child with a disability, then the child has a greater chance of being responded to as an individual with many qualities other than the disability. Parents can maintain a realistic perspective and see the future as holding growth possibilities for the child when the family system is healthy.

The family must adapt its structure to the everyday demands of caring for a child with disabilities. Sharing duties so that no one member carries all of the burdens is important to the harmony of the family. Living with ambiguity about the uncertainty of the future for the handicapped child and getting over the guilt that family members could be experiencing are common stages that families experience. Gradually, families with intact structures come to trust their capabilities and to reassure each other of their abilities to raise their child. Siblings are not given excessive responsibilities and are treated as important members of the family who have needs for attention and love.

2. Interface of the Family With Others

CLD parents often experience stress in their relationship with systems outside the family. Often, as a result of having immigrated to the U.S., CLD families are far away from their family support network. Mothers may experience isolation, lack of help in caring for their child, and lack of help from their spouse, who for economic or survival reasons may be working extended hours. Furthermore, most minority families don't know how to access the help of agencies or feel it wrong to solicit help for their child from others outside the family. These factors and others, influence the kinds of help that are available to a CLDE child and his/her family.

3. Nature and Onset of the Disability

Factors that influence the family's reaction to the child with special needs include: 1) how visible and severe the disability is, 2) the possibility of a cure, and 3) the degree of life style changes that the family needs to make to adjust to the child. Families who know at birth that they have a child with a disability will develop different coping patterns than families who suddenly, because of a disease or traumatic injury, must change their interactions with their child who they once saw as "normal". Strong feelings of guilt and responsibility may be present in families where the disability is genetically linked or where there is a belief that the parent's wrongdoings have caused the problem.

4. Family Belief Systems

Family reaction is affected by how the family makes sense of the reason for their child's disability, and what beliefs the family has about the child's potential. Family meanings about the disability need to be explored, especially with CLD families. The family may perceive their child as a gift from God, or may believe that they are being punished for a wrongdoing. The world view of the CLD family is an important factor in determining how educators can best provide support.

5. Affective Responses

Research, predominately with monolingual English speaking families of exceptional children, has shown that families pass through similar affective stages in dealing with the exceptionality of their child. These stages are characterized as shock, denial, emotional disequilibrium, adaptation, and reorganization. Educators working with CLD families may find that they experience these stages or they may find that CLD families have different affective reactions which need to be documented and better understood. In all cases, families need love and support as they move to greater acceptance of and adaptation to their situation.

Language Minority Parent Involvement/ Communicating with Culturally and Linguistically Diverse Parents

MULTISYSTEM

II. Communicating With LEP Parents of Children With Disabilities

A. Factors That Hamper Communication With CLD Parents

Marion (1980) points out that a communication gap exists between CLD parents and the schools, arising from the failure of professional educators to effectively communicate with minority parents and the failure on the part of parents to ask questions of professionals. Quong (as cited in Marion, 1982) explains that often, parents of culturally and linguistically diverse children are apprehensive about their contact with school officials. For example, he notes that many Vietnamese parents are intimidated by their interactions with school personnel. He suspects that a language barrier, compounded by culture shock, has the effect of making schools become "foreign" and impersonal places for Vietnamese parents. Portuondo (1981) found that immigrant and first generation parents believe that school personnel are the "experts" and are not to be questioned. Because of these reasons, many CLD parents stay away from schools.

Marion cites four central barriers impeding language minority parent involvement:

1. One of the major problems faced by schools is an inability to communicate with language minority families. Often the parents do not speak or read English and school personnel do not speak or write the language of the parents. Furthermore, even when there is someone in the school who speaks the particular language of the home, often language minority parents are not informed about their child in layman's terms. Marion, and others have urged professionals to avoid educational jargon or any language features that detract from the parent's comprehension.

2. A further impediment to communication occurs because of an inadequate number of bilingual special education professionals to interact with limited English proficient parents. Many schools utilize non-professional and untrained bilingual individuals from the community as interpreters. Parents are then forced

to communicate with professionals through an uninformed third party and this creates further barriers to effective communication.

3. When CLD parents go to school, they often go with great anxiety because they expect bad news. Because responsive, enabling programs have traditionally not been available to their children, the result for many minority youngsters has been retention and placement in stigmatizing and segregated compensatory programs. It is no wonder minority parents, aware of such deleterious past practices, may distrust the school.

4. Another communication gap arises because of the lack of knowledge on the part of professionals of the cultural values and life styles of the various cultural groups. For example, Pepper (1976) has pointed out that a lack of understanding on the part of school personnel of the fact that folk medicine and faith healing are vital elements in Hispanic and Native American cultures creates a serious communication problem between school personnel and the parents in discussing viable support and treatment options.

Because of the paucity of research conducted with culturally diverse parents of exceptional children and because of the many communication problems documented in the literature, educators need to reach out to parents in order to learn more about what information culturally diverse parents have regarding special education, what attitudes they hold, and in what ways they need help from educators in dealing with their children with disabilities.

ACTIVITY

B. Role Play: Discrepancies in Role Expectations

Directions:

Two participants will be selected to play the roles of parent and teacher. Each role player has a brief description of the role they are to play.

The scene of the role play is the following:

A Puerto Rican mother meets with her son's special education resource room teacher after having been asked to a meeting. The parent has been told by the teacher that her child is failing most academic subjects in the mainstream classroom and refuses to try in the special education resource room.

The two volunteers will play out their roles for 10-15 minutes. Following the role play, discuss the episode by considering the following questions:

1) What misperceptions on the part of the teacher became apparent?
2) What assumptions have been made by the teacher and by the parents prior to the meeting?
3) What discrepancies in role expectations were revealed?
4) What status did each person assign to the other?
5) Did the teacher behave in any way that might inhibit the parent from sharing and discussing any problems?

Role Description - I

Teacher Role

The resource room teacher is convinced that the student is not trying in school because his parents are not interested in his education and are not concerned enough to encourage him in his school work. Since the child in question is from a working class Puerto Rican family, she strongly suspects that the major cause of the student's difficulties is that his home environment does not provide him with adequate intellectual stimulation. Although she does not know whether or not this environmental condition can be overcome, she hopes to elicit help from his parents in order to reverse the situation. She intends to get each parent involved as a home teacher or tutor in order to encourage their son's academic efforts.

Role Description - II

Parent Role

Both parents have been very concerned about their child's difficulty in school. However, because the father is working and is not able to attend the meeting at 2:45 in the afternoon, the mother is representing the family at the meeting. She had been reluctant to initiate a meeting with the special education resource room teacher because of her embarrassment of not having completed her education and her limited understanding of English. While she does speak some English, she has a very limited vocabulary, has difficulty with verb tenses, and frequently confuses her pronouns. She is very intimidated about this meeting.

Both parents want all of their children to have a better life, but given their life circumstances, don't understand how their dreams of having their children go to college will ever be realized. They do not see it as their role to teach academic skills to their children. They feel it is the job of the experts -- the teachers. The mother is especially concerned that her son's social and emotional needs are not being met in school. Her son often comes home from school and echoes feelings of failure. Recently he has given up trying. The mother sees her primary role and that of her husband as supporting the emotional and social development of their children. She blames the school for destroying what she and her husband have worked hard to develop in her son in these areas. She does not understand why her son is in a resource room and doesn't believe it is helping him to be out of his mainstream class.

C. Activity: Delivering Effective Messages Through Empathic Understanding: Interpreting Levels of Empathic Understanding in Teacher Statements.

Directions:

1. Form groups of three people each.
2. Individually read each teacher statement and using your handout on Carkhuff's levels of empathic understanding, determine the level for each statement. (Level 1, 2, 3, 4, or 5)
3. Discuss in your triad group your responses and arrive at an agreed upon level for each statement. Record the rationale as to why the group decided upon that response.
4. Each triad will share their answers with the large group and conflicting responses will be discussed in terms of rationales for selection of a particular response. Group members will decide which response appear to be the most accurate.

Teacher Responses

1. Parent: I get very afraid when Pedro leaves for school because I know the children make fun of him.
   Teacher: I want you to know, Mrs. Medeiros, that Pedro is a bright boy and is doing very well in school.

2. Parent: I don't know what I'm going to do with Awilda, I think I'm going to send her back to Puerto Rico.
   Teacher: You're feeling very worried about Awilda and helpless. You're very much hoping that someone can help you find a way to help her.

3. Parent: I don't know what I am going to do with Awilda, I think I'm going to send her back to Puerto Rico.
   Teacher: I know you're upset, when are you planning to send her?

4. Parent: I get very afraid when Pedro leaves for school because I know the children make fun of him.
   Teacher: You don't have to be afraid, Pedro's a big boy and can take care of himself.

5. Parent: I'm sorry Ilda is a bad girl in school. I punish her and tell her to be good and she keeps on being bad.
   Teacher: Mr. Pacheco, you're feeling upset because you don't know what to do to help Ilda in school. Please understand Ilda is doing poorly in reading but she is not a bad girl. She is trying very hard and we all want to help her to do better.

Activity Handout: Empathic Understanding In Human Relations

(SOURCE: Modified from Carkhuff, R.R. (1969). Scale 1--Empathic understanding in interpersonal processes A scale for measurement. In Helping and human relations. A primer for lay and professional helpers. Volume 1: Selection and training (pp. 174-175). Orlando, FL: Holt, Rinehart & Winston, Inc.)

Level 1

The helper either pays no attention to or he subtracts very much from the other's expressions.

The helper shows no attention to even the most obvious feelings of the other person. The helper may be bored or disinterested or he may be expressing ideas that he had already made up in his own mind which totally shut out what the other person is saying.

The helper does everything except show that he is listening, understanding, or being sensitive to the other person.

Level 2

While the helper responds to the feelings expressed by the other person, the helper responds in such a way that he subtracts noticeably from the other's feelings.

The helper may show some awareness of obvious surface feelings of the other, but what he says drains off some of the feeling and mixes up the meaning. The helper may express his own ideas about what is going on, but these do not fit with the expressions of the other person.

Level 3

The helper's expression is interchangeable with the expression of the other person. The helper expresses essentially the same feelings and meanings that the second person expressed. The helpee could have said just what the helper said, without changing any of his feelings and meaning.

The helper shows accurate understanding of the surface feelings of the other person, but the helper may not respond to or he may misunderstand the deeper feelings.

The helper's response neither subtracts from nor adds to the other person's expression, but the helper does not respond accurately to how the person feels beneath the surface. Level three is the *least* that a helper needs to offer in order to really help another.

Level 4

The helper adds noticeably to the other's expressions. The helper expresses feelings at a level deeper than the other person expressed himself, thus enabling the other person to express feelings which he was unable to express before.

Level 5

The helper adds very much to the other's expression. He is "together" with the other or "tuned in" on his wave length, picking up the other's deepest feelings.

Think About It!

Teacher Reminders for Parent Conferences

1. Did you let the parents talk about whatever they chose?
2. Did you remain an acceptant listener?
3. Did you remember that you may need to ask questions to get at important issues?
4. When you made comments, did you talk in terms of the parents feelings?
5. Were you able to restrain yourself from giving unsolicited advice?

   (Careful!--"suggestions" are sometimes nothing more than thinly-disguised advice.)
6. If you did offer suggestions, did you provide alternatives so that the parents had options?
7. Did you let the parents talk as much as they wanted to?
8. Were you able to restate the feelings the parents just expressed to demonstrate active listening and accurate understanding?

Think about how your interaction might change depending on the parent's cultural background.

D. Small Group Problem Solving Activity: Parent/Teacher Communication

Critical Incidents in Parent/Teacher Communication: A Problem Solving Approach

Directions:

A. 1) Participants should divide into 4 groups with no more than 8 members in each group.
   2) Groups 1 & 2 should work on incidents A, C.
   3) Groups 3 & 4 should work on incidents B, D.

B. Once in small groups, and using the appropriate critical incidents, take the perspective of a classroom teacher directly involved with the minority students discussed. Review each situation by addressing the following questions:

   1) In each situation, what appears to the problem(s)?

   2) Do you feel the parents should be contacted?

   3) If the family is to be contacted, what approach would you use in establishing contact with the family and communicating the problem to the family?

   4) How would you like to see the problem resolved? What do you see as the responsibility of the parent in resolving this problem?

C. Following the small group interaction, discuss the experiences of each small group.

Critical Incidents*

Example A:

In an elementary school, an Assyrian youngster is assigned to the resource room for remedial skills work. He is also scheduled to receive speech therapy once a week. The resource room teacher becomes aware of lack of progress in the speech therapy sessions and the growing reluctance on the part of the child to attend these sessions. This reluctance is primarily exhibited through non-verbal behaviors: forgetting, frequent absences on the days the therapy is scheduled, reluctance to practice during individual sessions with the teacher, and reports from the regular classroom teacher that the child is becoming increasingly less verbal. The resource teacher consults the speech therapist to find out what has happened during the actual therapy sessions. The therapist states that the child is progressing moderately well on the objectives but that she (the therapist) has difficulties working with the child because of the child's extreme "bad breath".

Example B:

In an elementary school, a Vietnamese boy is coming to a class dressed in clothes considered more appropriate for a girl. He wears an earring and a white ruffled blouse. The other children find his dress very amusing and laugh and stare at him. In addition, this youngster dos not respond to the Vietnamese name on his school registration card. He responds by calling out another name-- one totally different from the one you were given with records.

Example C:

In a middle school setting, a female Hispanic LD student refuses to go to gym classes. She also refuses to wear gym shorts or to sing secular songs in classes. She arrives very tired at school and claims she is not able to complete any homework assignments because she spends all evening, usually until 11 o'clock, at her church.

Example D:

In an elementary school, a Nicaraguan child has been referred for a psychological evaluation. The day following the teacher's meeting with the parents to explain the reasons for the referral and the kinds of evaluations she requested for the child, he arrived in school and appeared very frightened and sad. When the teacher questioned the child about his sadness, he refused to talk.

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*Developed by Dr. Patricia Medeiros Landurand for the Multicultural Institute for Change, Regis College, 1982.

Language Minority Parent Involvement/ Educating Parents About Special Education

MULTISYSTEM

III. Educating Parents About Special Education

SOURCE: Hayes, Susan N (1982) A primer for parents: Obtaining children's educational rights. New Rochelle, NY. (Changes and additions have been made where appropriate.)

A. Children's Rights in Special Education

Public Law 94-142, the Education for All Handicapped Children Act of 1975, is a federal law with accompanying regulations. It requires every state to develop a plan for meeting the needs of children with special education problems. There are several major components to the legislation with special relevance to parents of children with disabilities:

1. All special education services are at public expense and are free to parents.
2. The intention of the law is to educate children with handicaps.
3. A child suspected of a special need has a right to an assessment by trained evaluators. Written permission must be obtained from parents before any assessments begin.
4. Individualized Educational Plans (I.E.P) must be written for each child in need of special education services. Parents are to be included in the I.E.P. process.
5. If parents are dissatisfied with any part of the procedures developed for their child's special needs and cannot resolve the problem with school personnel, they can ask for a hearing with an impartial hearing officer. They can also file suit in a state or federal court. Parents and children have a right to due process.

Public Law 94-142 has provided particular safeguards that have had a great impact on services to culturally diverse populations (Figueroa, 1984); including:

1. A first safeguard; that services need to be extended to the *unserved* and *underserved* populations. Overrepresentation is also being carefully monitored. Educators can no longer indiscriminately label minority children as mentally retarded, as was occurring in the past decade. Minority parents can be expected to demand appropriate services for their children rather than accept

the all-too-common and erroneous classifications of mentally retarded or learning disabled (Marion, 1981; Ortiz & Yates, 1983).

2. The "due process" clause, which gives parents the right to appeal decisions about their child and which encourages parents to join forces in court cases when necessary on behalf of their children.
3. A requirement that all testing be nondiscriminatory and in the primary language of the child. This provision has helped LEP students from being classified as disabled solely on the basis of language *differences*.
4. A requirement that parents are to be communicated with in their primary or dominant language. This provision places responsibility on the schools to assure adequate communication and to provide interpreters when necessary.

B. Children's Rights in Regular Education

Problems in regular education programs can occur in an academic area such as reading, spelling, or math, or in special subject areas such as art, music, physical education, or any other elective. Parents may raise questions because of textbooks or assignments which seem inappropriate or excessive. The way a teacher organizes a class may cause discomfort for a child. Interpersonal relations between the child and the teacher or the child and other children may be a problem. Whatever concerns a parent has are valid and should be addressed.

A parent has a right to make an appointment and meet with his/her child's teacher in order to discuss solutions. S/he may request extra help in the form of any school services that are considered part of the regular program. For example, remedial reading and counselling are two extra services that can be offered as a part of the regular education program.

If communication with the teacher fails to bring solutions, then the parents have the right to meet with the administrator of the school. If after working with the teacher and school administrator, the parents are still not satisfied, they can appeal to the superintendent. As a last resort, the local school board, or the State Department of Education, Legal Division, may be brought in to resolve the issue(s).

C. Children's Rights in Bilingual Education

There are state and federal regulations which provide legal protection for children of limited English proficiency who are in need of bilingual educational services. Children of limited English proficiency vary greatly in their skills and background. Some students have recently arrived in the United States from another country and speak little, if any, English. Of these, some are refugees who have fled their own country and later were involuntarily relocated in the U.S. Others have planned and chosen to immigrate to this country. Some of these LEP students are here with their families, while others live here with relatives, sponsors, or adoptive agencies. A great number of non-English background students are born in the U.S. and live in a home or neighborhood where a language other than English is spoken. While these students have a limited command of English, they will have some experience with American culture.

Without adequate communication skills in English, the Supreme Court determined that LEP students taught only in English in an American classroom are denied equal access to learning. For this reason, our federal government in 1968, passed the Bilingual Education Act. The intention of the Federal legislation was for LEP students to develop greater competence in English, to become more proficient in the use of two languages, and to gain from increased educational opportunity. According to Title VII (Bilingual Education Act), the student's home language is to be used as the main medium of instruction while the student is gaining command of English. In this way, the LEP student continues to gain important knowledge and skills through the first language while learning English. This approach, designed to prevent students from becoming educationally deprived, uses instruction in two languages for any part of or all of the school curriculum. Study of the student's heritage and home culture is also considered an integral part of a bilingual education program.

Becoming fully-proficient in a new language takes time. A student learning English must first learn to listen in the new language and then they will begin to speak. Speaking will follow a period of active listening. Reading activities should only be included when written symbols have meaning for the child. It may take five to seven years until LEP students can use English successfully for cognitively-demanding, academic purposes (Cummins, 1982). Bilingual and ESL programs give children of limited English proficiency a chance for successful learning. Without these programs, LEP students will be denied equal access to learning and will fail in academic areas. LEP students who fail because they have not received supportive services in their primary language and English as a second language, including second language literacy instruction, may be erroneously referred to special education where, if improperly diagnosed, they will become wrongfully placed in special education classrooms. *Special education is not the correct program for a student whose unmet educational need is that s/he needs to develop English proficiency.*

D. Factors in Parent Involvement

SOURCE: Hainsworth, P.K., Carton, B.S., Van Loon, L., & Roznowski, F. (1983). Involvement of parents of bilingual children. In using ERIN multiculturally (pp.B1-39-B1-43). Dedham, MA: Early Recognition Intervention Network (ERIN). Some changes have been made where appropriate).[1]

1. Experiences of CLD Parents With Educational Institutions

What kinds of schooling parents experienced as children may have a lasting effect on how they feel about their own children's programs. Many types of educational backgrounds may be represented in the parent population, from no schooling to university degrees. Since universal public education is still not available in many parts of the world today, some parents may have not had the opportunity to attend school. Some parents may consider themselves fortunate to have obtained from three to six years of schooling. Employment or daily work of parents may not have required literacy or school skills, especially in an agricultural society, so parents may feel distanced from their own school experiences. This is even more likely if education was conducted in an official language which differed from the one used at home (such as French in Haiti or Portuguese in the Cape Verde Islands).

In many countries, limited resources dictate that classes be large: even in first grade, 50-60 children in a class is not uncommon. Discipline in such classes is often strict and authoritarian; physical punishment may be acceptable; expulsion may be used, especially if there are others waiting for schooling. A major teaching technique may be the copying and memorization of large bodies of information (Matsuda, 1978). Children may be grouped exclusively by academic level, with wide age ranges in each grade. In some countries boys are still encouraged to attend school more than girls. Religion may be an integral part of school instruction. Children are often obligated to provide their own materials and uniforms.

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[1] Please note that the original document does not provide references for the citations given in this section (pp. 302-305). For this reason they are absent in the resource bibliography for this module.

2. Cultural Differences in Teachers' Roles

The practices and beliefs of the teachers and schools that parents have experienced influence the way they approach their child's educational program. Teachers' roles vary around the world. They may be considered the in-school equivalent of mother and father. They may be religious or secular educators. They may be expected to teach children the skills they will need in their future lives as adults, or they may be expected to pass on information and skills that do not relate in a direct way to families' daily lives. Children may be required to behave in precisely defined ways with teachers, or informality may be encouraged.

Teachers' relationships with their communities also vary by culture. Some teachers are an integral part of community activities and daily life and know the parents of their students as friends; others may be viewed as elite and apart. Parents may have shared information about their children freely, or they may have assumed that teachers' opinions about their children had more validity than their own. They may be shy or fearful in the face of teachers' questions about their own impressions of their children's abilities.

The school as an institution may be seen as a familiar, friendly community resource--perhaps the center of other activities as well--where families are welcomed, or it may be an intimidating place where children's abilities and futures are judged and parents are reluctant to become involved.

3. CLD Parent Expectations About Institutions

In many parts of the world, special education programs are unknown. Disabled children may be cared for by the mother, by members of the extended family or by the larger community. Parents from such backgrounds, whose children need special services may not know how to go about finding special services for their exceptional child. Additionally, many recent arrivals go through an adjustment process in which it feels safest to gather the family inward and approach the new world in a cautious, gradual way (Taft, 1977). To put their handicapped children in the hands of strangers may seem a cold or threatening thing to do. An outreach program of community education may be needed to explain how special education can be of positive benefit to children's development, and what types of services are available.

if parents are unfamiliar with special education, and if they experienced highly uniform programs and graded curricula, they may doubt that their child can participate in formal schooling. A worthwhile outreach and orientation activity is to first determine the educational expectations of parents and then explain and demonstrate the rationale for the goals, curriculum, and practices of the special education program according to each parent's current level of knowledge.

Parents may assume that the school is responsible for the child at school, the parent responsible at home, and expect very little communication between them unless the parent has an apology for lateness or absence or the school has a problem to report. Parents may assume that a note or call from the school must mean that their child has behaved very badly. The idea that a parent or caretaker may have valuable information or opinions that can relate to the teaching program may be quite foreign, it may also seem unusual to receive newsletters or descriptive information about children's progress.

In families where educational concerns have been secondary to more basic aspects of earning a living, parents may feel that mutual family responsibility takes precedence over regular school attendance. Older siblings stay home to care for younger ones when necessary (e.g., when a parent is sick). Even children as young as six may stay away from school to help as translators. The school's expectations of regular attendance may not overshadow these daily needs, and parents may assume that it is the school's responsibility to work around absences. The school, in turn, may assume apathy or a lack of commitment by families.

Many families share the belief that education is the route to success and freedom from poverty (Appleton, et al., 1978). Some immigrant families may insist that English be the only language used in their child's educational program because they have experienced discrimination based on their lack of full proficiency in the host culture's language. Others will want their children to be well-educated in English and in the home language.

Families who are suffering psychologically may not think in terms of long-term benefits from education, and although they have hopes for their children's future, they may not be able to define these hopes in ways that lead to step-by-step action. For them, the well-run program can serve as a secure base for seeing these hopes translated into action, and for developing confidence in their children's abilities and in their parenting skills.

4. Current Life Realities

Those outside the main currents of economic life in the U.S. are disproportionately women and members of minority groups. Even in areas such as the Southwest where a particular ethnic group has been established for many generations and is now developing a strong political power base, there are proportionately more non-white people below the poverty line. Socioeconomic status may create even more of a negative bias than ethnic identification (Rist, 1973). Since economic segregation tends to parallel ethnic and racial segregation, poor non-white families are doubly disadvantaged. There is another factor which is having a substantial impact on families and children: The number of poor families headed solely by women is increasing at a rapid rate. Some analysts predict that by the year 2000 almost all the poor in the U.S. will be women and children (Armstrong, 1980). Employment opportunities are limited for untrained women (Nuttal, 1979), and if jobs are found, advancement is frequently difficult (Beller, 1982).

Families who are struggling with financial insecurity, lack of personal support, and/or acculturation issues are under stress (Grosjean, 1982). People under stress tend not to have much energy to give to issues other than those related to relieving the stress, and it may be unrealistic to expect such families to take the initiative in their children's education. Some parents suffer from homesickness and/or depression. For adults, apathy, illness, and aggression are often the expressions of depression. A parent's emotional crisis may cause withdrawal, apathy, and passivity, or hyperactivity, anger and aggression in children.

Educators must be alert to the possibility that the issues described in this section influence the lives of parents with whom they work. Understanding such life circumstances will make outreach strategies more realistic and effective.

5. A Final Caution About Informing CLD Parents About Their Rights

Informed parental consent to special education evaluation and placement means that parents' background knowledge is accommodated in the explanations provided. All service providers charged with informing parents of their rights must fully ascertain the levels of the parent's background knowledge regarding special education in the U.S. context in order to fully inform them, assist them and protect their rights.

ACTIVITY

E. Changing Classrooms

Abstract

Awilda is in the fourth grade and recently immigrated from El Salvador and is afraid to go to school. She is waking up in the middle of the night and begs her mother not to make her go to school. She says that the children tease her because she dresses differently and doesn't speak English. Mrs. Estrada, Awilda's mother, has asked the principal, Mrs. Wagner, to allow Awilda to transfer to the other fourth grade class where Awilda has some Spanish-speaking friends. While Mrs. Estrada likes Awilda's current teacher, she feels the social environment in the other class would be much more positive for her daughter.

The principal has refused. Not changing classrooms is a school policy, a policy which is essential to maintaining teacher morale after a teacher's strike last year. The principal wants to help Awilda to adjust to her current class and has offered the support of the counselor and the resource room teacher. Furthermore, she feels that Mrs. Estrada is overprotective and that her recent separation from her husband is contributing to Awilda's anxiety.[2]

Exercise

Engage in the following role plays:

1) An early discussion between Mrs. Estrada and the teacher and when they come to a common definition of the problem;

2) A conversation between Mrs. Estrada and the principal about the transfer.

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[2] Adapted from Brown & Swap, (1986). Home-school partnerships. Brookline, MA: Wheelock College.

Follow-up Discussion Questions

1. What feelings does this case evoke in you from
    a. the parent's view?
    b. the teacher's view?
    c. the principal's view?

2. What strategy or strategies were helpful and who used them?

3. What comments hurt communication and hampered conflict resolution? Who made the comments?

4. How would you resolve this conflict?

5. What are Mrs. Estrada's rights and how would you help her to know and exercise them if you were Awilda's current fourth grade teacher?

F. RESOURCE MATERIALS FOR LANGUAGE MINORITY PARENT EDUCATION

THE FOLLOWING PUBLICATIONS ARE AVAILABLE IN ENGLISH AND SPANISH FROM:

The National Committee for Citizens in Education
10840 Little Patuxent Parkway, Suite 301
Columbia, MD 21044
(301) 997-9300

HANDBOOK:

1) Parents Organizing to Improve Schools (1976) 52 pp., softcover, ISBN 0-93440-01-9, $3.50.

Step-by step guide to organizing and running parent groups in schools that can act effectively to upgrade the quality of education and get parents into the educational scene in a lasting way.

2) Los Padres Se Organizan para Mejorar las Escuelas. (1976; revised, 1981) 66 pp. softcover, ISBN 0-93440-16-7, $3.50 Spanish edition of Parents Organizing to Improve Schools.

POCKET REFERENCES:

1) Parent Rights Card

Wallet-sized card lists 21 rights parents have in the education of their children under federal or state laws, regulations, and court decisions.

SINGLE CARD FREE, IF ACCOMPANIED BY SELF-ADDRESSED, STAMPED BUSINESS-SIZE ENVELOPE, ALL OTHER ORDERS $.10 PER CARD.

2) Annual Education Check-up Card
Guidelines to help parents review a child's progress in school. Fits in pocket or purse. Includes an inventory of home and school files kept of school children, questions to ask teachers and guidance counselors, steps for appealing school decisions.

SINGLE CARD FREE, IF ACCOMPANIED BY SELF-ADDRESSED, STAMPED BUSINESS-SIZE ENVELOPE, ALL OTHER ORDERS $.25 PER CARD.

3) Special Education Check-up Card

This checklist for parents of handicapped children shows whether local schools and school districts are following federal laws. Tells what steps to take if they are not. Covered are the IEP, school records, due process and least restrictive environment requirements.

SINGLE CARD FREE, IF ACCOMPANIED BY SELF-ADDRESSED, STAMPED BUSINESS-SIZE ENVELOPE, ALL OTHER ORDERS $.25 PER CARD.

WHEN REQUESTING POCKET REFERENCES PLEASE STATE ENGLISH OR SPANISH.

THE FOLLOWING PARENT BOOKLETS ARE AVAILABLE IN ENGLISH AND SPANISH FROM:

Moreno Educational Co.
PO Box 19329
San Diego, California 92119
TEL: (619) 461-0565

1. Parents - Teach Your Children to Learn Before They Go to School
2. Parents - Learn How Children Grow
3. Teaching Ideas for Parents to Use With Their Children
4. Parents - Your School Involvement Can Help Your Child
5. Parents - Learn About Drugs
6. Parents - Learn About Your Teenager
7. Job Information for Parents and Students
8. Preventive Discipline and Positive Rewards for Your Children
9. Parents - Some Ideas for Communicating With Your Teenagers
10. Information About Teenage Marriages for Parents and Students
11. Parents and Students: Learn How to Study and Improve Your Grades
12. Teaching Values to Your Children
13. Parents as Teachers: Help Your Children Become Better Readers
14. Childhood Immunization and Dental Care
15. Good Nutrition and the Health of Your Family
16. For Single Parents: Some Helpful Information for Raising Your Children
17. The Effects of Stress on Parents and Family Life
18. Lets Talk About Drug Abuse
19. Communicating With Our Sons and Daughters
20. Parenting Information for Parents--Book 1
21. Parenting Information for Parents--Book 2
22. Parenting Information for Parents--Book 3

OTHER RESOURCES

New York State Commission on Quality of Care, Bureau of Protection and Advocacy. El derecho de su niño a una educación: Una guía para ayudar a los padres de niños impedidos a planificar su educación.

Office for Education of Children with Handicapping Conditions, New York State Education Department, Your Child's Right to An Education: A Guide for Parents of Children With Handicapping Conditions in New York State (In Chinese, English, French, and Spanish).

Schultz, Rosario A. (1982). Resource Materials Available in Spanish Concerning Exceptional Children. ERIC Document #ED 218 843

Nutcher, J. G. (1982). Annotated Bibliography of Spanish Language Materials for Parents of Exceptional Children. Vienna, VA: Counterpoint Handcrafted Books and Other Media. (9618 Percussion Way, Vienna, VA 22180).

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Language Minority Parent Involvement/
Successful Techniques for
Minority Parent Involvement

MULTISYSTEM

IV. Successful Techniques for Minority Parent Involvement

Source: Lozano, Fernando. (1980, July). Midwest Bilingual Education Service Center. Reprinted by permission.

There are four levels of parental involvement that are commonly practiced by schools. By identifying the level of parental involvement that is currently practiced at a school, service providers can begin to understand how practices they might want to initiate will be affected by the "norms" of the setting.

A. Levels of Parental Involvement

Level I: Little parental involvement with the school. ***Parents are primarily viewed as an audience or as passive observers***.

- Educators view themselves as knowing what is best for the children's education.
- Personal contact with the school is generally limited to periodic parent-teacher conferences concerning student progress, or mandated IEP conferences.
- Information about the school is limited to newsletters or flyers describing school activities which are sent home periodically with the students.
- There are parent advisory councils for federally-funded projects as required by law, but these groups generally provide limited input to the programs.
- Generally, there is little allowance for differences in language and culture on the part of the school.

Level II: Some parental involvement. Primary consideration is on ***parental awareness of their role as teachers in the home.***

- Strategies for involving parents in a teaching role may include bringing parents to the school and/or conducting home visits.

- Parents are given guidance on how to help their child at home with simple exercises or activities.

- More specific information is given on what the child is doing at school so that instruction may be reinforced at home..

- Cultural and linguistic differences in the community are recognized.

Level III: Increased parental involvement in the school. Primary consideration is on the role of ***parents assisting in the school/classroom.***

- The school may invite parents to meetings or parent workshops.

- Parents are involved as volunteers in the classroom. Their roles may be instructional or noninstructional, but they are limited to support or supplemental roles.

- The school seeks support from parents for social or fund-raising activities.

- The school requests recommendations and suggestions from parents but does not offer parents decision-making power in the program.

Level IV: Active parental involvement in the school. Primary consideration is on the role of ***parents assisting in the planning, delivery and evaluation of services.***

- The school actively encourages parents to be an integral part of the planning team.

- Parents have an institutionalized role in the school.

- Parents assist in evaluating services and in revising and improving programs..

- Parents and community members play a visible and active role in the school.

B. Successful Strategies for Interacting with Parents

The following suggestions have been made by organizations and individuals experienced in working with CLD parents of exceptional children:

1. *Be a participating listener* - Professionals need to be able to listen to parents without making value judgements. They need to give full attention to what the parents are saying and feeling and extend every courtesy to parents.

2. *Give parents respect* - Minority parents are sometimes not given the respect from professionals that they deserve. Unless this occurs, parents will never feel enough trust to communicate their needs and cooperate with professionals.

3. *Make home visits* - Professionals should extend themselves and visit the homes of the parents of their CLDE children. During these home visits, it is advantageous to seek information from the parents about their expectations for their child and the professionals who are working with them.

4. *Involve other important family members* - Not only mothers, but fathers, grandparents, older siblings or other significant family members who perform caretaking roles for the child should be invited to attend meetings involving the child. Not only do they lend support to the mother, but they can also provide valuable information about the child and make important contributions to the exceptional child's growth and development.

5. *Train peer parents or paraprofessionals to initiate parent contact as an alternative to the teacher initiating contact with parents, especially those that are difficult to reach.* Parents can often reach their peers and share strategies that they have used effectively with their own exceptional children as coequals. Finding and training community people to serve as liaisons is a helpful strategy for reaching certain parents.

6. *Sclicit the help of priests and ministers.* Many CLD parents are deeply religious and hold their priest or minister in highest esteem. They are more apt to listen and follow suggestions that emanate from these role models than suggestions from educators.

7. *Write and speak in clear language that the family will understand.* CLD parents are unfamiliar with many special education terms. Furthermore, since many CLD parents speak little, if any English, they must be communicated with in their primary language.

8. *Attempt to involve CLD parents to enrich the school's program* Invite parents to share a cultural practice, a hobby or their career interests with students.

9. *Involve parents in appropriate ways in the planning and delivery of school-related parent programs.* Parents should be made to feel that they are a part of the planning of their child's educational program, but should not be made to feel inadequate by being asked to do things they were never trained to do.

C. The Mirror Model of Parental Involvement

(Kroth and Otteni, 1982)[1]

The *Mirror Model of Parental Involvement* was built around the following beliefs:

- Education is a partnership between home and school.
- Parents, like children and teachers, are individuals who bring a variety of strengths and needs to this partnership.
- School personnel have a responsibility to utilize those strengths and meet those needs.
- Communication and cooperation between parents and teachers are accomplished through multiple approaches.

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[1] Kroth, R., & Otteni, H (1983) Parent education program that works A model Focus on Exceptional Children, 15(8), 6 Love Publishing Company Reprinted by permission of the publisher

- Growth and development of children are enhanced when the significant adults in their lives interact with one another effectively.

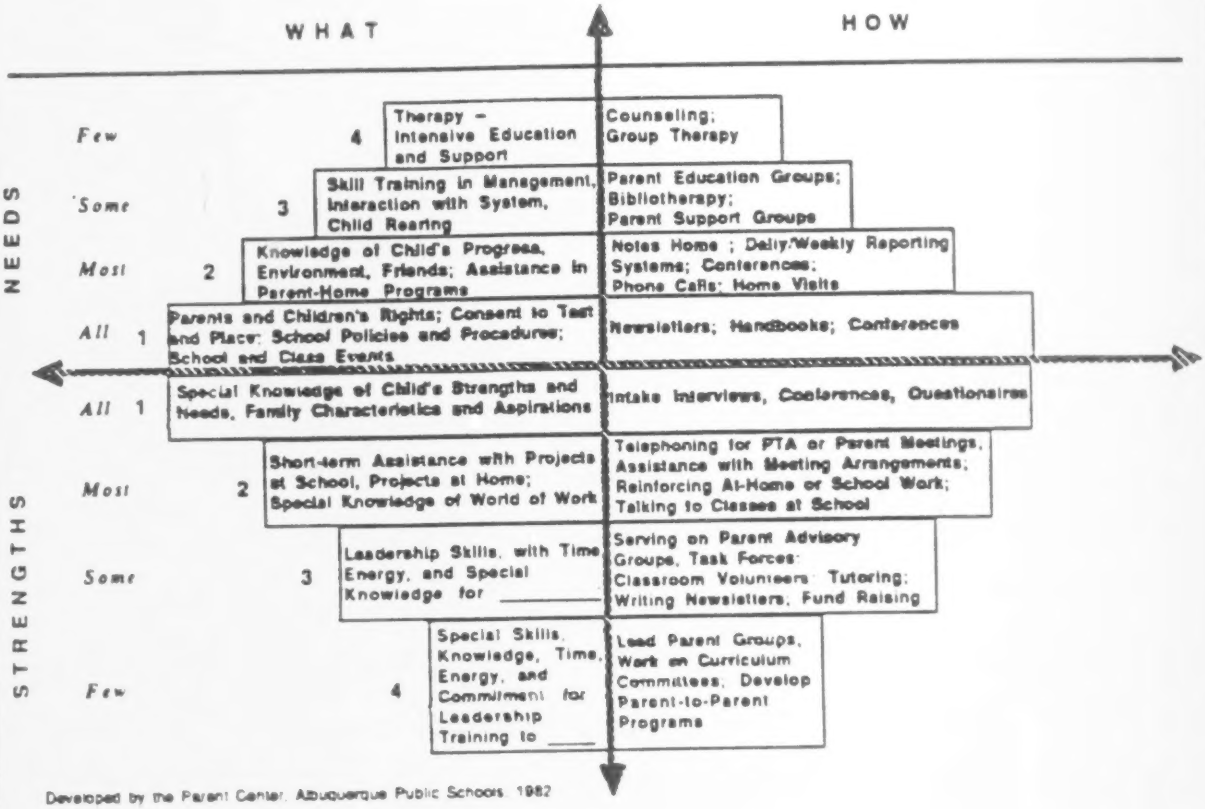
In addition the model assumes that:

1. Parents of exceptional children comprise a heterogeneous group (in terms of life circumstances, income level, literacy ability, employment status), and therefore parent involvement programs should be designed to accommodate the differences found among parents.
2. Parents have a variety of needs and strengths. Some needs are shared by all or most parents, whereas other, more intensive needs, only exist in a small proportion of parents. Correspondingly some strengths are exhibited by all or most parents, while specialized capabilities and talents may only be possessed by a smaller group of parents.
3. Money, time, and personnel constraints will limit the nature and scope of the services that can be offered to families. Programs should be organized to maximize effects.

The model which follows reflects these principles. It describes representative services for each level of parental need above the center line, while below the line it details what differential strengths parents possess, as well as how these strengths might be utilized by school personnel. It suggests how resources should be allocated to obtain the greatest effects.

A reference to the original article which fully describes the *Mirror Model of Parental Involvement* is provided in the resource bibliography at the end of this section.

Mirror Model of Parental Involvement



			WHAT	HOW
NEEDS	*Few*	4	Therapy – Intensive Education and Support	Counseling; Group Therapy
	Some	3	Skill Training in Management, Interaction with System, Child Rearing	Parent Education Groups; Bibliotherapy; Parent Support Groups
	Most	2	Knowledge of Child's Progress, Environment, Friends; Assistance in Parent-Home Programs	Notes Home ; Daily/Weekly Reporting Systems; Conferences; Phone Calls; Home Visits
	All	1	Parents and Children's Rights; Consent to Test and Place; School Policies and Procedures; School and Class Events	Newsletters; Handbooks; Conferences
STRENGTHS	*All*	1	Special Knowledge of Child's Strengths and Needs, Family Characteristics and Aspirations	Intake Interviews, Conferences, Questionaires
	Most	2	Short-term Assistance with Projects at School, Projects at Home; Special Knowledge of World of Work	Telephoning for PTA or Parent Meetings, Assistance with Meeting Arrangements; Reinforcing At-Home or School Work; Talking to Classes at School
	Some	3	Leadership Skills, with Time Energy, and Special Knowledge for ______	Serving on Parent Advisory Groups, Task Forces; Classroom Volunteers; Tutoring; Writing Newsletters; Fund Raising
	Few	4	Special Skills, Knowledge, Time, Energy, and Commitment for Leadership Training to ____	Lead Parent Groups, Work on Curriculum Committees; Develop Parent-to-Parent Programs

Developed by the Parent Center, Albuquerque Public Schools, 1982

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D. MORE IDEAS: Successful Strategies for Minority Parent Involvement

Direct service providers are encouraged to implement all of the strategies suggested below, taking into account the linguistic and cultural characteristics of the home. In planning parental involvement activities, it is important to plan around the needs of the *entire family*, rather than to limit the focus narrowly to the needs of the handicapped child or the needs of the parents. In thinking about the following parent involvement activities, it is always best to assume a *family systems perspective* to obtain the most positive results.

1. Provide resources to parents

Collect brochures and booklets (L_1/L_2) about:

- community resources,
- information concerning the various disabilities in layperson's terms.

List bilingual/bicultural contact persons at:

- clinics,
- community agencies/services (food, housing, jobs,
- welfare, health care, counseling, disability-related services),
- adult education and training programs,
- associations & clubs.

2. Work with community leaders

Discuss the community's needs and goals.
Jointly organize supportive services for families.
Jointly plan activities for families.

3. Make home visits

Establish personal contact with the whole family; bridge the home/school gap.
Determine needs and goals of families.
Encourage participation in school-related activities.

4. *Publicize the program through:*

- Newsletters,
- Flyers on program activities,
- Articles in local newspapers

5. *Organize parent meetings/workshops*

Plan for child care and "creature-comforts."
Plan an optimal day of the week, time and place for the meeting.
Have a specific purpose in mind related to parent needs/goals
Encourage parent leadership and involvement in the events.

Offer workshops/training on:

- school/community orientation,
- child development,
- cross-cultural communication,
- parenting issues,
- special education-related topics,
- current issues,
- strategies for assisting children at home,
- residency or immigration topics,
- job skills.

6. *Organize social events*

Plan events where parents can socialize together.
Plan events where CLDE children can socialize with their siblings/friends.

7. *Organize parent/child services*

Organize a reading center
Organize a parent activity center.
Organize an information clearinghouse.
Organize a phone help line.

8. Request assistance in the classroom

Parents can assist:

- in tutoring children,
- with special events (fairs, shows),
- with specific units of study,
- with the donation of time, or talent (cooking, sewing, translating, making needed classroom items).

9. Communicate with the home

- Hold informal parent "conferences" often.
- Send home a "good work" folder of student work products.
- Send photographs or monthly letters reporting on class activities.
- Offer to send books to read/home activities to complete (Have a request form attached to facilitate communication).
- Call home often.

10. Encourage school visits

- Teach parents how to get the most out of a visit.
- Encourage parents to come to school as a group or in teams.
- Role play interactions with administrators, teachers, paraprofessionals and school clerical/secretarial staff to increase negotiation strategies available to parents.
- Distribute guides for evaluating the program, or classroom during a visit. (See materials available for this purpose in Spanish and English in the resource materials section of this module.)

Activity: A CLD FAMILY CASE STUDY

LOOK AT THE PHOTOGRAPHS OF SILVIA AT SCHOOL

READ THE CASE STUDY

DISCUSS HOW TO PROVIDE SUPPORT TO THIS FAMILY

Silvia S. is a Spanish-dominant Hispanic child with Down's syndrome (IQ=54). She is 10 years old and in a non-graded, self-contained, bilingual special education elementary classroom. Silvia's mother was born in the Dominican Republic and her father in Germany. The parents are now divorced. Silvia's mother is Spanish dominant and currently has limited proficiency in English. She is a freshman in college where she takes ESL courses. Silvia has two older brothers and two older sisters. All siblings are bilingual.

Silvia is at a readiness level in all basic skills. She is able to trace letters and words (reproductive behavior) but does not yet read or write. In class she is always polite, but at times withdrawn and passive.

Silvia and her mother have a positive attitude toward both languages and cultures. Silvia's mother hopes someday to return to the Dominican Republic where she believes life will be better for her daughter.

Because Silvia has made limited gains at school, even though she has attended bilingual programs since preschool, her mother has begun to keep Silvia at home frequently. She misses whole weeks, even months at a time. In the last month, Silvia had a three-to-one ratio of absence to attendence.

Silvia's mother responds in very supportive and concerned ways when she comes for meetings regarding Silvia's progress. However, the absenteeism is worsening and Silvia is losing ground educationally.

What should be done to assist Silvia and her family?

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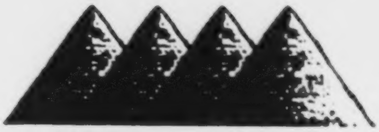
MULTISYSTEM

SCHOOL-BASED SUPPORT/CONSULTATION FOR MAINSTREAMING

Intent of the Module

This module is designed to enable service providers to work more effectively with other school personnel in order to improve instructional services for CLDE students in special education and mainstream settings. Specifically, the module will focus on strategies for working with paraprofessionals, the teacher-to-teacher consulting process and group decision-making.



School-based Support
Strategies for
Working With Paraprofessionals

MULTISYSTEM

I. Strategies for Working With Paraprofessional

SOURCE: Diaz, V.T. (1982). A model for the teacher/paraprofessional instructional team. Davie, FL: The School Board of Broward County.) Reprinted by permission.

A. Teacher and Paraprofessional: Working as a Team

Because of the large numbers of students of diverse language backgrounds and the lack of bilingual specialists to serve these students, bilingual paraprofessionals have become an important necessity in both special education and regular education programs. In general, *paraprofessionals should work with teachers as instructional team members but should not be asked to replace the teacher.* In cases where bilingual paraprofessionals have been hired to work with limited English proficient students, there is a danger that the monolingual specialists, unable to speak the language of the student, may place too much responsibility on the paraprofessional. The bilingual paraprofessional is there, like any other paraprofessional, to support and assist the teacher. Having a caring, sensitive bilingual paraprofessional who speaks the language of the student and understands the student's culture can have a tremendous impact on the student's progress as well as his/her self-esteem and will greatly assist the teacher in meeting the child's needs.

1. Developing a Successful Team

The important ingredients to developing a well-functioning team are: clarification of roles, establishing trust, and retaining flexibility. The teacher is the team leader and has the responsibility for the quality of services delivered to the students. The paraprofessional has the responsibility to assist and support the teacher.

2. Clarification of Roles

The following are the primary duties of each member of the instructional team:

3. Role of the Special Educator

The role of the special education teacher is to design, organize, oversee, and evaluate each student's individualized instructional program. The teacher coordinates and implements the instructional program with other professionals and parents.

The teacher must identify those specific skills that each student needs to develop in order to succeed in the least restrictive environment. Strategies for teaching these skills must be developed, and the effectiveness of those strategies continuously assessed.

The special educator must also make sure that identified skills are reinforced by regular classroom teachers, support personnel and parents. The teacher must orient them to the program, maintain continuous communication, and ensure that skills learned in one setting are practiced and sustained in another.

4. Role of the Paraprofessional

Paraprofessionals in special education classrooms serving CLDE students are second only to the teacher in their scope of responsibilities and instructional capacity. Their role in providing a culturally and linguistically appropriate environment is also important.

The presence of the paraprofessional in the classroom helps to reduce teacher-pupil ratios, and thus helps increase pupil learning. By assuming some of the teacher's instructional duties under teacher supervision, paraprofessionals also release the teacher for more in-depth planning, individual consultation, and curriculum development.

B. Suggested Paraprofessional Responsibilities in the Special Education Classroom

1. Suggested Guidelines for Instructional Teams

(Adapted from the NSVP/NEA Task Force)

a. Paraprofessionals:

- Express a genuine interest in helping students.
- Attend preservice and inservice training sessions when provided.
- Assist with established record-keeping procedures.
- Serve under the supervision and direction of the teacher; NEVER substitute for the teacher.
- Maintain a professional attitude, respect the confidentiality of all information and activities related to students and others in the school.
- Comply with school rules.
- Understand and use the appropriate channels of communication for sharing comments and/or suggestions regarding a particular student.
- Become an integral part of the school organization and work within the school program.

b. Teachers:

- Participate in inservice training for the effective utilization of paraprofessionals.
- Follow designated procedures for utilizing paraprofessionals.
- Assign appropriate duties for paraprofessionals and give them clear instructions and support.

- Provide information about students and appropriate materials to enable paraprofessionals to help students effectively.

- Keep paraprofessionals informed about any changes in classroom schedules which may affect their work.

- Be responsible for the daily educational program - instructing, diagnosing, prescribing and evaluating students and their work.

- Set aside time on a regular basis to observe paraprofessionals at work and have frequent planning conferences with them.

- Recognize paraprofessionals as part of the instructional team and express appreciation for their contributions.

2. Paraprofessional Duties

Paraprofessional duties can be organized into four general categories. They provide assistance in the areas of: a) instruction; b) behavior and self-concept development; c) development of school and community relationships; and d) instructional planning and management.

a. In the *instructional* category, paraprofessionals can be utilized to:

  - Reinforce concepts introduced by the teacher,

  - Reinforce reading and communication skills,

  - Work with small groups to encourage verbal responses (e.g., using finger puppets, flannel board stories, rhymes, games and songs),

  - Work with individual students,
  - Assist children during work and play times as new materials are introduced or as familiar materials are being used,

- Assist with the clerical classroom work, and
- Provide feedback to the students on work that they are doing.

b. In the *behavior and self-concept* category, paraprofessionals can provide assistance by:

- Sharing their cultural/experiential background through art, music, or dance, their work experiences, hobbies, etc.,
- Displaying a positive attitude,
- Listening to the students and establishing rapport with them,
- Modeling cooperative behavior in interactions with the teacher, other personnel, and the students,
- Giving support and encouragement to the students,
- Being fair and consistent toward all children,
- Helping with discipline, and
- Helping students to gain independence in getting and putting away materials for work and play

c. The paraprofessional can help *develop school and community relationships* by:

- Acting as a link between the school and the home,
- Assisting with home contacts to bilingual families which are specifically authorized by the principal or special education supervisor,

- Distributing announcements and newsletters that communicate information about the school and the classroom to the community,

- Seeking out community people who can share knowledge and experience in special areas of interest,

- Offering advice to the teacher about community resources and places to go for field trips,

- Reinforcing positive attitudes of parents and students toward school, and

- Dealing with attendance problems by working with parents and students on the importance of coming to school regularly.

d. Paraprofessionals can assist the teacher in *daily planning and classroom management*. They can:

- Assist in setting up materials for bulletin boards and keeping all classroom displays current,

- Collect audio-visual equipment needed from storage and operate A.V. equipment or guide students in its use,

- Help set up learning centers,

- Work on special projects and programs,

- Record language use in the classroom,

- Take roll-call and assist with opening exercises,

- Correct tests/homework,

- Assist with playground activities before and during the school day - always under the supervision of an instructional staff member,

- Assist the classroom teacher during luncheon periods when necessary, and
- Observe and report on student behavior, academic progress and health conditions.

C. Bilingual/Bicultural Special Education Service Delivery Models and the Roles of Paraprofessionals

In this section, three models representing alternative service delivery systems for CLDE students will be discussed. The role of the paraprofessional will be highlighted in each model. The options range from a model in which only minimum bilingual service delivery criteria are met to one in which comprehensive bilingual services are possible. In each one, there are differing coordination requirements -- two requiring constant feedback among the principal instructors, and one that is more self-sustaining. All three models allow the integration of specialized curriculum material in the first and second language and mainstreaming to either a bilingual or monolingual regular education program. Each basic service model is amenable to the addition of designated instructional services to supplement the core program (i.e., speech and language services, adaptive physical education, counseling services, physical therapy, etc.). These services could also be supplied to the child in the first or second language.

1. Bilingual Support Model

This model represents the minimum service level, with a monolingual special educator responsible for all the instruction provided. S/he would implement all IEP objectives to be accomplished in English and oversee those implemented by the paraprofessional in the student's native language. This design requires that the special educator receive training in order to understand the characteristics of CLDE students and to learn the specialized second language instructional strategies that facilitate learning. In turn, the paraprofessional is trained in special education techniques and classroom management. Daily coordination is a necessity for the teacher and paraprofessional to function as an instructional team.

The bilingual support model is advantageous when (1) there are too few bilingual students to be served to warrant a credentialed bilingual instructor, (2) the native language of the child is not that of the existing bilingual services in the district, or (3) the parents prefer that the majority of their child's educational program to be delivered in English.

In this model, because the teacher does not speak the language of the student, there may be a tendency to allow the paraprofessional too much responsibility in teaching the child without proper guidance. In no case, should the paraprofessional replace the teacher. The role of the paraprofessional is to assist and support the teacher in improving instruction and delivery of services to the student. The paraprofessional needs to receive ongoing training in order to succeed in this role.

2. Coordinated Service Model

This option calls for comprehensive servicing by two credentialed instructors--a special educator and a bilingual/ESL educator. In this model, both instructors should be knowledgeable in the foundations and instructional techniques of each other's fields in order to communicate effectively and form a unified team. The special educator has primary responsibility for service delivery and executes all areas of instruction designated for English delivery. The bilingual educator directs the implementation of all special education goals targeted for a bilingual or monolingual native language delivery. On-going coordination is necessary, but the scheme permits independent implementation because each instructor is certified. In this model a paraprofessional may be of assistance to either the special education or the bilingual/ESL educator, and may work with only one team member or move between both in order to assure consistency with a particular student.

The coordinated services model is advantageous when:

- Bilingual teachers are available in the district for the target ethnolinguistic minority group;
- Teaming is an acceptable approach to the instructors involved;
- Training is provided to both team members regarding the other's field prior to initiating services;
- It is clearly not feasible to implement an integrated program by hiring a bilingual special educator;

- The parents desire that a bilingual approach be used with their child.

Its major disadvantage is its cumbersome design: The use of two credentialed instructors to serve one child is costly.

3. Integrated Bilingual Special Education Model

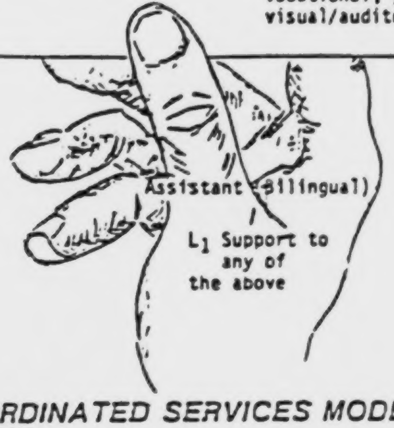
In the most comprehensive and compact of the three models--the integrated bilingual special education model--one educator skilled in both fields delivers all services independently. This arrangement is the preferred delivery method since it is the most cost effective and efficient. It is especially advantageous when the district has sufficient numbers of exceptional bilingual students to require its implementation or when the district elects to access such services because of the obvious advantages. The paraprofessional may be used in this model to assist the bilingual special educator in individualizing instruction or may be hired to work with a CLDE student who speaks the language of the paraprofessional but not that of the bilingual special educator.

Nancy (Dew) Cloud
Illinois Resource Center For
Exceptional Bilingual Children
1982

BILINGUAL SUPPORT MODEL

Special Education Teacher (Monolingual)

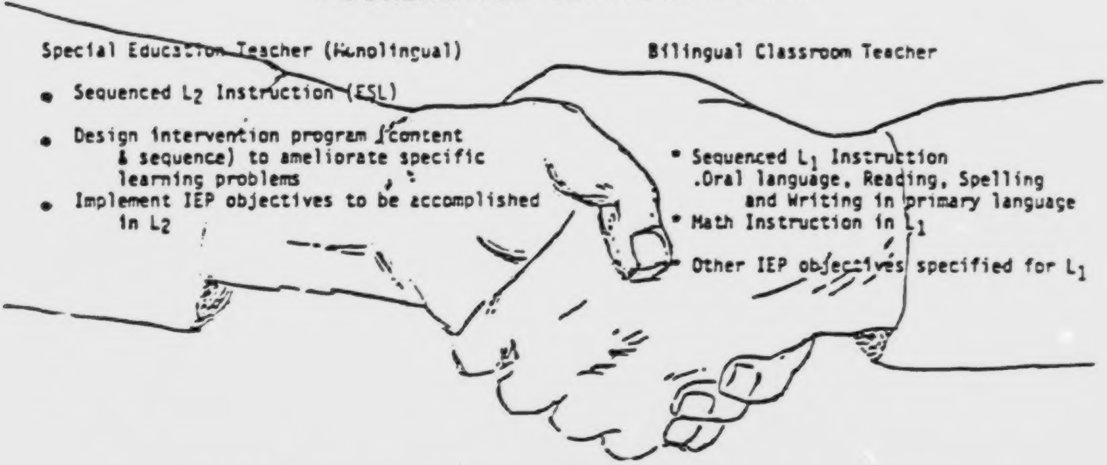
- Sequenced L_2 Instruction (ESL)
  - . Oral Language (receptive, expressive)
  - .Reading (word attack, comprehension)
  - .Spelling/Writing (based on oral language)
- Math Instruction in L_2
  - .Based on concrete experiences
  - .Building language & cognitive development together
- Other IEP Objectives (Self-help, vocational, gross/fine motor, visual/auditory perception)



Assistant (Bilingual)

L_1 Support to any of the above

COORDINATED SERVICES MODEL



Special Education Teacher (Monolingual)

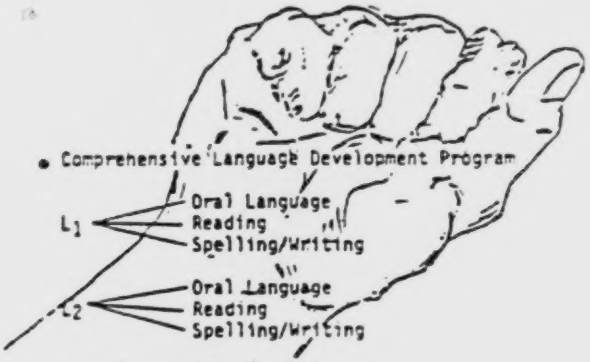
- Sequenced L_2 Instruction (ESL)
- Design intervention program (content & sequence) to ameliorate specific learning problems
- Implement IEP objectives to be accomplished in L_2

Bilingual Classroom Teacher

- Sequenced L_1 Instruction
  - .Oral language, Reading, Spelling and Writing in primary language
- Math Instruction in L_1
- Other IEP objectives specified for L_1

INTEGRATED BILINGUAL SPECIAL EDUCATION MODEL

Bilingual Special Education Teacher



- Comprehensive Language Development Program
  - L_1
    - Oral Language
    - Reading
    - Spelling/Writing
  - L_2
    - Oral Language
    - Reading
    - Spelling/Writing
- Math Instruction (L_1 L_2)
- Other IEP Objectives (L_1 L_2)

Nancy Dew, Illinois Resource Center
1982
Graphics by Ruth Ellen Finn

School-based Support Consultant Techniques in School Settings

MULTISYSTEM

II. Consultant Techniques in School Settings

(Based on Meyers, J. (1982). Consultation skills: How teachers can maximize help from specialists in schools. Unpublished manuscript).

A. Rationale for Consultation

Consultation is a problem-solving process which occurs between two or more professionals where one professional (the consultant) assumes the role of helping the other (the consultee) to insure the academic, social and emotional development of the students (clients).

In school consultation, the consultant is usually a specialist such as a special educator, bilingual/ESL specialist, psychologist, counselor or language therapist. The consultees may be administrators, teachers, paraprofessionals or other school personnel. The most frequent application is teacher-to-teacher consultation where both parties engage in a problem-solving, collaborative relationship, and where neither is obliged to accept the others' conclusions or recommendations.

School based consultation is a necessary strategy for several reasons. First, the traditional approach of removing the student from the regular classroom to receive special education assistance has been criticized as contrary to the philosophy of Public Law 94-142 with its emphasis on placing the students in the least restrictive environment and on mainstreaming students as much as possible. Alternative interventions, which allow the student to remain in the regular classroom to the maximum extent possible, require consultation between specialists and regular education personnel.

Second, as educators move from a medical model of assessing "the problem" as existing within the child to an ecological model where the school and classroom environments are assessed in relation to their impact on the student's performance, consultation to respond to the dysfunctional elements becomes more important. This might include the development of alternative instructional strategies or alternate physical arrangements in order to help the student in particular school environments.

Third, because there are too few specialists in relation to students with exceptional needs and their time with each student is limited, it becomes very important that specialists increase their effectiveness by sharing specialized intervention strategies with classroom personnel who have continuous contact with students. By sharing specialized strategies with regular classroom teachers, it may also be possible to prevent future problems from occurring with particular students in regular education programs and thus minimize the need for segregated special education services.

B. The Consultation Model

Meyers, et al., (1979), propose a five-part continuum of services in which the specialist offers consultant services within the school. *One of the five levels of service;* testing and direct interventions with children, does not involve other parties, rather *all services are delivered independently* by the specialist. However, in the remaining stages of Meyer's Model, four types of consultation within the school are recommended.

Level 1: *Consultation Based on Direct Service to the Child*

The specialist tests and observes the student directly. After gathering and interpreting this data, the specialist *works with the teacher* **in developing interventions** to be carried out by the teacher.

Level 2: *Indirect Service to the Child*

At this level the consultant has the *teacher or a paraprofessional gather the needed data*. Then the consultant meets with the teacher to collaboratively explore **intervention approaches**. Prior to implementation the consultant might help the teacher by conducting practice sessions and by providing immediate feedback to the teacher on the intervention techniques implemented. In other cases, the consultant may observe the teacher applying the intervention and give immediate feedback on a regular basis. A third option may be for the consultant to directly model the technique with the students for the teacher to observe.

Level 3: *Service to the Teacher*

The primary goal at this level is to *promote change in the teacher's behavior and/or attitudes.* At this level, the consultant conducts an indepth interview with the teacher in order to determine if the problem requires service to the teacher. Level 3 may be selected when it is agreed by both parties that the consultee has a problem because of a lack of knowledge, lack of skill, lack of self-confidence, or lack of objectivity. The consultant must then determine whether the intervention should be role playing, modeling, direct instruction with the teacher or another approach. In cases of lack of objectivity, where the consultant observes that the consultee is too personally involved to be objective or is not aware of his/her own biases and acts of discrimination toward a particular child who may be a representative of a particular linguistic, cultural and/or racial group, the consultant must gently help the teacher become aware of this fact. Once both partners agree that the conflict does exist, then strategies can be explored to rectify the situation. Level 3 is a more difficult and less practiced service for specialists within the system to offer. The consultant may appear more threatening to the teachers who need help because they both work within the same system. Furthermore, consultation in this area **focuses on the teacher and not the student**. This focus can be more threatening to teachers than focussing on particular students who need specialized intervention.

Level 4: *Service to the Organization*

At this level, the consultants primary task is to *change the organizational climate, structure, or functions of the school.* Although this is the least direct way of affecting a student's behavior, it is often the most effective consultative intervention. The basic techniques in this approach include: interviews and surveys to gather data; feedback to the organization regarding the findings, and a problem-solving process whereby the organization develops a plan to correct the problem(s). The specialist may be able to negotiate formal agreements with the administration or s/he may be able to achieve the desired results through informal means by the consultation strategies suggested.

ACTIVITY

C. Consultation Model Activity (25 Minutes)

1. Join one of four small groups and focus on one of the four levels of consultation proposed by Meyers, et al.
2. Determine situations where a specialist might consult at this level and discuss practical implications of this level consultation.
3. Select one individual from your group to report your results to the class.

D. Phases in the Consultation Process

Meyers (1973) proposes six phases of the consultation process. The first phase is to **obtain a formal agreement** regarding consultation service provision. At this phase the specialists need to formally determine their rights and responsibilities as school-based consultants with their administration. Issues such as whether or not they will be given time to consult with other staff during the school day and how much of their time will be allocated to consulting needs should be determined prior to the delivery of services. Another issue that needs to be resolved is how the administration will encourage other staff to seek help from the school-based consultant. Formal and informal means for promoting the use of the consultant should be developed.

Negotiating will occur not only with the administration but also with each staff member who desires assistance. Every staff member who seeks consultant help needs to know the nature and extent of assistance available. Informal negotiation between the consultant and the consultee to determine the exact nature of services to be delivered continues as each person involves him/herself in the process.

The second phase in the consultation process is **problem identification.** At this stage, the consultant determines which level of consultation is most appropriate and, in most cases, offers the most indirect level of service feasible.

The third phase is **problem definition.** During this stage, the consultant and the consultee gather pertinent data about the problem and both partners arrive at an agreed-upon definition of the problem.

The fourth phase is the **implementation of intervention strategies.** Both partners participate in determining the intervention strategies to be used.

Once these are determined, the teacher or consultee has the primary responsibility for carrying forth the strategies unless the consultant decides to model the strategies for the teacher in order to make the implementation simpler for the consultee.

The fifth phase is the **evaluation stage** where a determination is made as to whether or not the strategies being implemented are working and change is occurring. This is a critical stage in the process and one that is often neglected.

The sixth and final phase is the **termination of the consultation relationship.** During this stage it is important that the consultant conduct periodic follow-up visits and encourage the consultee to request further help whenever needed.

E. Consulting Conditions

The consultant should always remember that consultation is a *collaborative* process between two professionals. The specialist needs to view the teacher (or other consultee) as having expertise and show respect for that expertise. At all times, the teacher or consultee should know that s/he is free to reject any recommendation offered by the consultant.

Carl Rogers' theory of counselling (1957) has particular applicability in helping specialists develop successful consulting relationships. His three conditions: 1) genuiness, 2) non-possessive warmth, and 3) accurate empathy are essential elements for achieving a successful professional collaboration.

The first condition, **genuiness**, is expressed by consultants when they show they are comfortable to be themselves. A genuine consultant remains non-defensive and doesn't hide behind a professional facade.

The second condition, **non-possessive warmth**, is demonstrated by the consultant when s/he accepts the teacher or consultee without conditional expectations and judgements. The consultant may disapprove strongly of the teachers behavior, but will display non-possessive warmth by being able to separate the teacher from the behavior being displayed and by respecting and accepting the teacher as a person.

The final condition elaborated by Rogers (1957) is **accurate empathy.** This occurs when the consultant is able to perceive situations from the teacher's viewpoint. The empathic consultant is skillful in interpreting the consultee's meanings and feelings.

Although more research is needed in regard to the effect of these three variables on the consultation process, a positive correlation appears to exist between the level of empathy established between the consultant and consultee and the consultation outcomes (Meyers, Martin & Hyman, 1977; Carkhuff, 1969).

ACTIVITY

F. Experiencing the Consulting Process

1. Two volunteers will be enlisted to play the roles of consultant and consultee in the following simulation:

   Scenario:

   On December 10, Ms. Johnson, a 7th grade English teacher requested the consultant services of Ms. Davidson, a special education teacher within the building. Ms. Johnson wants Ms. Davidson to assist her with a problem she is having with Van-Huy Vong, a student in Ms. Davidson's special education resource room for L.D. students.

   Van-Huy receives one period of resource room services per day. According to Ms. Johnson, Van-Huy is doing very poorly in her seventh grade English class. His grades have regressed from "B-" in September to an "F" in December.

   Ms. Johnson has provided Ms. Davidson with the following information:

   -Van-Huy, his parents, and a younger sister arrived in the U.S. one year ago as Cambodian refugees.

   -Van-Huy was transferred from Ms. Niessens' English class to Ms. Johnson's class because both Ms. Niessen and the principal, Mr. McSweeney, felt Van-Huy would be more comfortable in Ms. Johnson's classroom where there were two Vietnamese students in the same class.

   -Van-Huy does not seem to interact with the two Vietnamese students. He has withdrawn in class more as time passed.

-Ms. Johnson requested that Van-Huy's parents come to school in November. The boy's dad was comfortably dressed in a Hawaiian shirt and jeans and appeared relaxed while his mom was dressed more formally and was very shy and apologetic. Both parents were very limited in English.

-In escaping from their homeland, they had a four month stay in Malaysia.

-Van-Huy's uncle, cousins, and grandparents were left behind in Cambodia because they were unable to afford the price paid to be smuggled out of the country.

-Because they were farmers, they were moved by the U.S. government to a farm outside of Austin, Texas with their sponsor family.

-Within 3 months, they left their sponsor family and moved to the city.

-Van-Huy's mother works as a housekeeper and his father is currently unemployed and taking E.S.L. classes. His sister is attending a nearby elementary school.

-Van-Huy demonstrates reading and writing processing problems in his native and second language.

2. During the simulation, observe and record the consultant's remarks. Using Carl Rogers' conditions of *genuineness, non-possessive warmth and accurate empathy*, determine which of the three conditions were represented in the consultant's responses.
3. Have each group share their responses and the rationale for each response with the class.

School-based Support Decision-Making: A Case Study Approach

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III. Decision Making: A Case Study Approach

A. Structures and Roles in the Group Process

(Based on: Pfeiffer, J. W., & Jones, J. E. (1974). A handbook of structured experiences for human relations training Vol. 2 (pp. 71-75). San Diego, CA. University Associate Publishers and Consultants.)

Group decision-making can be affected by the structure of the group or the participants selected to be in the group. Each participant in the group provides input which affects decision-making. The success of the decision-making process will depend, in part, on the *information* known by its members concerning the case and the *skills* of each participant in the decision-making process.

Each individual in the group may play several roles in the decision-making process. The roles may be viewed as either **task functioning roles** or **maintenance roles**, or **anti-group roles.** Task functioning roles are *those that involve getting the task completed.* Maintenance roles are *concerned with creating and maintaining a positive group climate.* Anti-group roles are *detracting roles* and are dysfunctional to successful group functioning. The following are brief descriptions of nine major roles that individuals may perform in a group:

1. Task functioning roles

   a. **Giver of Information**

   - providing facts, stating beliefs, and giving suggestions.

   b. **Seeker of Information**

   - asking questions, requesting facts relevant to the case, drawing out others' opinions, asking for suggestions.

   c. **Clarifier or Elaborator**

   - interpreting what others have said to clear up confusion, giving examples to elaborate points made, restating opinions expressed by others.

   d. **Summarizer**

   - pulling together ideas throughout the discussion, reflecting group agreement or disagreement, testing for consensus by suggesting a joint decision based on the discussion.

2. Maintenance roles

a. Encourager

- encouraging others by being friendly, warm, and responsive to them.

b. Harmonizer

- attempting to reconcile disagreements by finding areas of commonality and pointing them out; reducing tension by enabling participants to explore their differences.

c. Gatekeeper

- Assuring that each participant has the opportunity to share ideas; suggesting strategies for improving group dynamics.

3. Anti-Group Roles

a. Blocker

- demonstrating oppositional thinking, slowing up group progress by bringing up something already agreed upon by the group or stopping group progress by taking an unreasonable stand.

b. Boaster

- bragging that one knows everything about the topic and has already tried everything that is being suggested.

B. Activity: Taking Roles in a Group Process

1. Nine volunteers will be enlisted to participate in a group problem-solving activity.

2. Each of the participants will be confidentially assigned one of the nine roles defined in the preceding section: (Structures and Roles in the Group Process) to play in the following simulation activity.

3. Problem to Be Resolved:

    - Within the past year, The McCarthy Elementary School, because of desegregation mandates, has two new student populations: Dominican and Haitian students. Prior to this year, the McCarthy School had a relatively homogeneous, middle-class population of students.

    - There have been numerous conflicts in the cafeteria and playground that appear to be racially motivated. Teachers have noted a widespread occurrence of racial slurs, jokes, and name-calling on the part of some of the other students.

    - The nine participants have been selected by the principal to serve on a Task Force to develop recommendations for resolving the problem described above at the McCarthy School.

4. The remaining class members are to serve as observers and are to identify the group process role played by each member of the group.

5. Each participant should reflect on which roles they most often play in the group and which roles they least often played and why.

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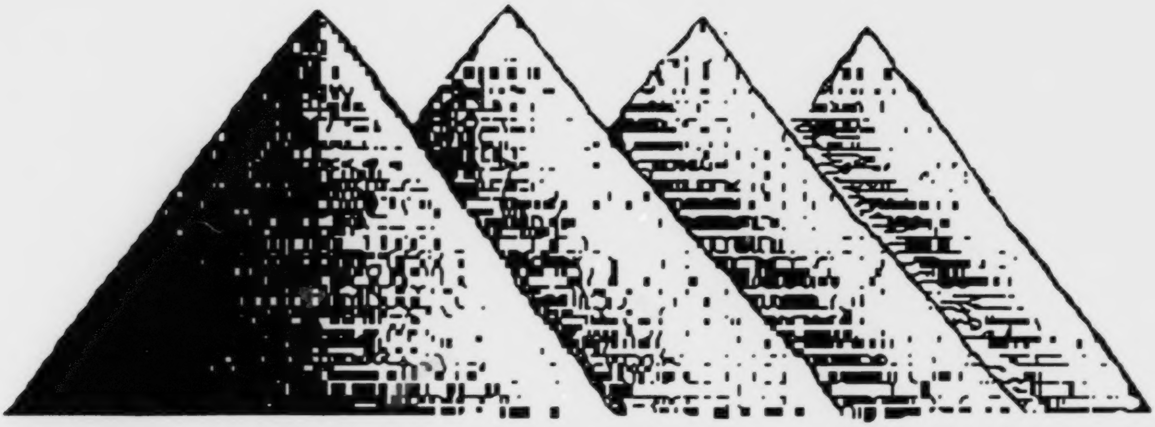

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Systematic Instructional Planning for Exceptional Bilingual Students

REFERENCE COLLECTION

Institute For Urban And Minority Education, Teachers College, Columbia University

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Systematic Instructional Planning for
Exceptional Bilingual Students

PREVIEW SECTION

RESOURCE MATERIALS

A Guide to

Culture in the Classroom

by

Muriel Saville-Troike

National Clearinghouse for Bilingual Education
1978

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The Nature and Scope of Culture

The concept of *culture* represents differing ranges of human behaviors, products, and institutions to people with differing academic and experiential backgrounds. The most common range included in the definition is the narrowest, encompassing only 'the arts', or perhaps admitting the uniquely identifiable behavior of 'cultured' individuals, such as extending the little finger at an appropriate angle when holding a tea cup, or pronouncing *tomato* with the 'proper' sound for *a*. Educators have generally recognized a broader scope of phenomena: evidence of 'culture' in a classroom includes such things as travel posters hanging from the wall and piñatas hanging from the ceiling, art projects ranging from making maracas out of gourds to constructing kites for Chinese holidays, and cooking-and-tasting sessions with tortillas, fry bread, or rice boats. Meetings and in-service workshops for teachers often feature 'cultural events', defined as singing and/or dancing typical of 'folk' in another country.

This may be good; this is certainly fun; but this is also an entirely inadequate perspective on 'culture' for the nature and goals of bilingual education.

To the anthropologist, the ethnographer who describes and explains the life ways of diverse groups of people, culture includes all of the rules for appropriate behavior which are learned by people as a result of being members of the same group or community, and also the values and beliefs which underlie overt behaviors and are themselves shared products of group membership. It is this scope of 'culture' which I believe must be understood, accepted, and accounted for in bilingual education.

Formal education (including the American educational system) is itself a cultural invention. In the United States, it is a system which serves primarily to prepare middle-class children to participate in their own culture. Students who come into the system from other cultures, including the lower social classes, have generally been considered 'disadvantaged' or 'deficient' to the degree that their own cultural experiences differ from the mainstream, middle-class 'norms'. (Programs in compensatory education in the United States have been based primarily on this rationale, and serve to provide middle-class cultural experiences to children who have been 'deprived' of them.) Our educational system cannot be blamed for attempting to teach the dominant American culture to all of its students, since such enculturation (or socialization) is the essential purpose of education in all cultures. We *can* blame our traditional educational system for inadequate provision or respect for students' culturally diverse backgrounds, however, and such criticism has constituted one of the basic motivations for the implementation of bilingual programs.

Culture is not an optional component of bilingual education, whether or not we add the term *bicultural* to the title of our programs. Nor is it an optional component of the programs which train bilingual teachers. Whether consciously recognized or not, culture is a central force in all education.

Use of the hyphenated label 'Bilingual Bicultural Education' is meant to stress the view that more than language learning is involved in bilingual programs. Such a usage implies that formal recognition is given to aspects of the student's traditional culture within the instructional program, both to ensure that the student has the opportunity to learn about it, and to enhance the student's feelings of acceptance within the school context. The relation of second language learning to the development of *biculturalism*, however, is a question that so far has received little attention.[1]

To what extent is learning a second culture necessarily related to learning a second language? Historically, the pragmatic answer to this question has been somewhat imperialistic in nature, and often also in intent. It has been considered axiomatic that because language is an integral component of culture, only the culture of the speech community from which the language derives is appropriate content for its expression, and that teachers must transmit that content to those who are learning the language.

Similarly, when the focus is explicitly on inculcating a second culture, teaching the language that goes along with it has been considered a primary and necessary means to that end. This has been shown clearly in American history by the language and educational policies adopted toward Native Americans. In the 1880's, for instance, the Commissioner of Indian Affairs reported:

> The first step to be taken toward civilization, toward teaching the Indian the mischief and folly of continuing in their barbarous practices, is to teach him the English language we must remove the stumbling blocks of hereditary customs and manners, and of those language is one of the most important (Berry 1968).

More recently, learning English in Puerto Rico was explicitly equated with accepting American cultural dominance:

> Since the United States is a major nation of the world, Porto Rico can well get the pace from a growing and ascending nation

> and learn the expression of the ways of a great people (Cremer 1932).

Even today, it is probably fair to say that most of the foreign language teaching efforts of such official agencies as the ICA (International Communication Agency), the British Council, the Goethe Institute, and the Alliance Française are much more concerned with spreading the influence of their respective cultures than with teaching their languages in and of themselves.

This same belief in the intrinsic relation between a language and the culture of the speech community from which it historically derives forms the basis for one of the principal arguments raised against bilingual education in the United States: the language of the United States is English; to speak anything else is considered somehow un-American, and to teach another language is viewed as culturally divisive, and contrary to the goals of national unity.

There is no intrinsic reason that the structures and vocabulary of one language cannot be used by many diverse speech communities to express their respective cultures, and in ways in keeping with their rules of appropriate behavior. Thus, although language is unquestionably an integral part of culture, the supposedly necessary relation between learning a language and learning the traditional culture associated with that language is not automatic. The relationship between a language and the culture in which it is used depends on the social context for learning and teaching the language, and the social functions which it assumes.

In the learning of a native language, that language is both part of the native culture being acquired in the process of children's enculturation, or socialization, and a primary medium for the transmission of other aspects of that culture from one generation to the next, such as values, beliefs, and rules for social behavior. If speakers remain in contact with their native culture, their native language proficiency expands to include expression of the new concepts they develop, the new domains in which they function, and the new role relationships in which they participate. This intrinsic relationship of language to culture is so 'natural' as to operate at an unconscious level for most native speakers, furthered by informal means more than by formal education, and by family and peers more than by professional educators.

When English is learned as a second language in countries such as the United States where it is the language of the dominant culture, and where proficiency in English is essential for full educational, political, and economic participation in the larger society, acquiring the language involves much more than merely learning English phonology, syntax, and vocabulary, for it must be able to serve most of the same functions that English does for the native speaker:

medium of instruction, expression of concepts and feelings, participation in expanding social domains and role relationships. Thus, second language speakers must be able to function according to the rules of the English dominant American culture. While the native of a culture acquires these rules quite naturally and unconsciously in the process of *enculturation*, the process for students acquiring a second culture is *acculturation*, the addition of a second set of rules for behavior which may coexist beside the first, replace them, or modify them. One possible result of this acculturation process is loss of the native culture or the merger of cultures until they are indistinguishable, called *assimilation*, and the resulting society a 'melting pot'. Perhaps one of the most important contributions of the movement for bilingual education in the United States has been the valuation of another possible result of acculturation: the selective maintenance and use of both cultural systems, or *biculturalism*.

The nature and extent of students' *cultural competence* is thus just as important as their linguistic competence for determining appropriate level and content for instruction in bilingual *bicultural* education. It is now beginning to be recognized that students who enroll in bilingual programs in the United States have varying degrees of proficiency in the two languages of instruction. Cultural competence will also vary. There is no reason to assume, for instance, that Spanish dominant students have acquired the culture of such Spanish speaking countries as Cuba, Mexico, or Spain in the process of acquiring Spanish as their native language. They indeed have acquired a culture, but it might well be the beliefs, values, and rules for appropriate behavior common to the dominant American society; in this case, being 'bicultural' would involve learning about their *ancestral* cultural heritage, which is analogous in many respects to learning about the culture associated with a foreign language.

Most probably, except for students who have immigrated directly from Spanish dominant countries, Spanish speaking students in the United States will have been enculturated into the minority subculture of a bilingual community. It is important that bilingual educators recognize the validity of these students' culture; comments have been made that students who have not acquired the culture of the dominant American society or the culture of the dominant society of a Spanish speaking country have no culture at all. These comments are often from the same people who feel that students who do not speak a standard variety of English or Spanish, or who code switch between them, are 'alingual'. These views are based on ignorance and misunderstanding of the nature of language and culture, and are potentially as damaging to students' self concepts and identity as those which forbid the use of their native language at school.

While I have been making my point with specific reference to Spanish speaking students because these constitute the largest target group for bilingual education, the same is also true for most other language groups in the United States: French speakers may or may not have learned the culture of France; Chinese speakers may have acquired the culture of a Chinese American community in San Francisco, New York, or Seattle or of the dominant American society rather than the culture of Taiwan or Hong Kong; Polish speakers in New England or Texas might well feel like (and be considered) cultural aliens if they returned to Poland.

The relevance of these observations for teaching culture in a bilingual classroom is in recognizing the range of cultural backgrounds which may be 'native' even to speakers of the same language. *Bi*cultural education assumes there are only two: the culture of the student's home and that of the dominant society; but the result is often the teaching of two *foreign* cultures without recognizing or providing for the student's native culture at all in the process.

While recognizing and accepting the culture which students bring to school is important, however, the fact remains that the same reasons exist for learning the dominant American culture as for learning English: it is necessary for full participation in the larger society. Teaching an ancestral culture, such as that of Spain or Mexico for Spanish speaking students, or of the Philippines for Tagalog or Ilocano speaking students, may be of considerable value for developing and understanding of traditions and for developing 'roots' for ethnic identity, but the objectives for developing positive self concepts through bicultural education will be negated if the actual culture of home and community is ignored or disparaged.

Sociocultural Influences on Learning and Teaching

To understand and facilitate learning in any area of the curriculum, teachers should know not only what it is that is being acquired, but how it relates to what has already been learned. The learning of culture, like the learning of language, begins with a child's first experiences with the family into which he is born, the community to which he belongs, and the environment in which he lives. By the time children begin their formal education at the age of five or six, they have already internalized many of the basic values and beliefs of their native culture, learned the rules of behavior which are considered appropriate for their role in the community, and established the procedures for continued socialization; they have learned how to learn.

Different child-rearing practices are preferred in different cultures, and these will have a significant effect on later learning (Saville-Troike 1973). They range from very lenient when compared to dominant group standards, with little physical restraint or coercion employed, to very strict control of early behaviors. For example, although few pronouncements can be made about 'Indian children' as a group, since the many tribes maintaining their identity in the United States are very heterogeneous with regard to language, culture, and even physical (racial) traits, there are a few social values and practices that are quite wide-spread among the various Native American communities. In general, little or no physical punishment is used, for instance, with children commonly disciplined by teasing, ridicule, or fear (as with Hopi Kachinas), or by indirect example through folklore. Their learning of physical tasks is often more through observation than verbal instruction, but many social and religious lessons are also taught through storytelling. A number of studies suggest that the visual perception and visual memory of Native American children raised in these groups are much higher than that of their Anglo age-mates (Kleinfeld 1970, Lombardi 1970, Cazden and John 1971).

Another example of the effect of traditional child-rearing practices is the Puerto Rican differentiation of sex roles from a very early age; these make a significant difference in educational attitudes and performance. For one thing, Puerto Rican girls show a higher anxiety pattern than boys when they are in a situation where they are threatened with failure, as when taking a test. The boys' lower anxiety is probably a function of the cultural attitude toward their admission of anxiety (Siu 1972).

Other behaviors of three and four year old Anglo and Puerto Rican children have been observed and compared while they were responding to a 'demanding cognitive task' (Hertzig, et al 1968). The differences were not believed to be due to differences in socioeconomic level (although this was evidently not controlled), but in home experiences: focus on social interaction rather than tasks; age at which independence is expected, and regarding toys as entertainment rather than education. Such differences should be related to questions about cultural differences in values, stages in the life cycle and acquisition of roles, and perceptions of the nature of work and play.

It is obvious that children who learn to learn in one culture and then must learn in the modes of another must experience some confusion and dislocation in the process. They are unfamiliar with the school structure, the expectations of the teacher, and the classroom procedure. They may encounter very different values which are being considered essential for learning (i.e., cleanliness, attendance, and punctuality). They may find behaviors which they have been taught to follow suddenly and inexplicably penalized or rejected (e.g., not asking questions, not attempting to do what you are not sure of being able to do successfully, being very concerned for correctness even on a timed test). All of this is in *addition* to the communication problems they may be facing when their language is other than English and the social stress and culture shock they may be experiencing if, as with many Koreans or Southeast Asian or Pacific Island students, they have only recently immigrated to this country.

Many research projects have been designed to show what differences in cognitive styles are systematically related to particular social group membership and cultural practices (see Cazden and Leggett 1976). The visual modality has been shown to be a relatively stronger learning style for Chinese and Native American students than for Puerto Ricans and Anglos (see Stodolsky and Lesser 1967, Cazden and John 1971, John Steiner and Osterreich 1975), and there is considerable evidence that Mexican American students may be more field dependent (i.e., make more use of the overall context in learning and processing information) than are Anglo students, who may be more field independent (see Witkin 1967, Cohen 1969, Ramírez and Price Williams 1974, Ramírez and Castañeda 1974).

There are cultural differences in teaching styles as well, although the acquisition of specific teaching skills during professional training is part of the socialization of educators to the subculture of the school. It is not at all certain that teachers from a similar cultural background to the students' will teach them more effectively, although research in this area is still far too sketchy to draw definite conclusions. It does seem clear, however, that *all* teachers would profit from greater understanding of differences in learning styles, and greater tolerance of differences. Particularly inappropriate for bicultural education are categorical claims about the *best* way to learn or teach *anything* (which are all too common in teacher training); the claim that 'children learn best by doing', for instance, is not true for all children. Cultural sensitivity and respect requires *relativism* and *flexibility* in teaching styles. Such eclecticism is nothing new as an option in pedagogy, but it is necessary, not optional, when teaching students from diverse sociocultural backgrounds.

Also clearly affecting learning are the attitudes and motivation of students and their parents, many of which are culture-specific. Cultural attitudes and values most assuredly affect teaching as well, since educators acquire these as members of their own cultural group, learn and generally adopt those of the dominant group where it is different, and have different attitudes and expectations toward students from different minority cultures.

Our educational goals are not limited to instructional objectives, but include the enculturation or socialization of children to values and expectations as well. This involves a weighty responsibility and requires careful thought, because, for good or ill, we often succeed. For example, accepting the goal 'success in school' often requires alienation from home, family, friends, and cultural heritage, and this is a terrible price to ask students to pay. We must learn to understand both the medium and the content of what we are teaching, and learn to be sensitive to the differences between what we are teaching and what the student brings to the classroom, so that our teaching becomes an aid and not a hindrance to the full realization of the student's potential as a human being.

Cultural Identity

People are categorized by themselves and by others along a variety of dimensions: according to race primarily by skin color and other physical characteristics; according to social class by the amount of money they earn and where they live and work; and according to ethnicity by their national origin or ancestry, and their own feelings of group membership.

The dimension of race is in part biologically determined and in part socially defined, and social class is at least partly determined by environmental factors and partly by the constraints and opportunities which our social system permits. It is along the dimension of ethnicity that we in the United States are most clearly categorized according to cultural knowledge, behaviors, and identity.

Both adults and children have diverse attitudes about their cultural categorization, as perceived by them or by others. Most value their own group membership. Some reject their own group and wish to change. This is always a possibility in our society, using such means as education, marriage, or emigration (including just moving across town). Many may wish or need to function as members of more than one group and be 'bicultural'.

These diverse attitudes can all be viewed as positive forces, and all can be compatible with learning a second language and with other school achievement, but they are often viewed in a negative light. Those who value their own group membership and don't wish to acculturate to the dominant group may be treated as not 'well adjusted' to our society. Those who reject their own group and wish to change may be viewed as 'traitors' to family and old friends. Those who wish to belong to more than one group may be mistrusted by both, and seen as 'spies'.

Whatever choice is made regarding group membership, language is often a key signal of identification, and this fact is critical in bilingual education. I am quite sure that students will have a better chance to reach their intellectual potential if early cognitive development continues in the native language, where the expanding reasoning processes can be most fully expressed and understood, but students must want to continue identification with their native culture if such native language development is to succeed. Students who want to change cultural identities generally also want to change their linguistic identification badge; such a shift before a critical level of first language competence has been achieved may result in 'semilingualism'[2] – full competence in no language.

I am also quite sure that students must learn English as a second language if they are to participate fully in the dominant society, but negative attitudes toward features of the dominant culture might well inhibit learning. Above all, this culture should not be perceived as threatening by students if their participation is really desired. While dominant group membership should be an available option, it cannot be imposed. The task is to teach about the second culture, and how to operate within it effectively – without requiring changes in students' cultural identity and loyalty – and to develop positive feelings about both cultures.

To some extent I am expressing a personal conviction, but recent research supports these claims:

> Psycholinguistic research . . . although only now getting underway, indicates that the hyphenated American can perhaps most easily become fully and comfortably American if the Spanish, Polish, the Navajo or the French prefix is given unlimited opportunity to flourish (Lambert 1975).

Other studies which conclude that minority group students who have maintained cultural ties are more likely to succeed academically than those who have left their cultural ties are reported by Espinoza (1971), Romano, et al (1971), Ramírez and Castañeda (1974), and Valentine (1971).

Full biculturalism is probably a rare phenomenon, if by 'full biculturalism' we mean cultural knowledge, values, skills, and rules for appropriate conduct in all of the domains of two distinct cultures. A more reasonable goal for bicultural education may be the creation of a cultural state in students analogous to linguistic *diglossia* (first described by Ferguson 1959 and extended by Fishman 1972). The minority culture first learned by many limited English speakers in the United States is comparable to the 'Low' (L) variety of a language as it is described by Ferguson, and the dominant American culture to the 'High' (H) variety of a national language. Just as with Ferguson's L and H language varieties, the minority cultures are generally learned by children at home, the dominant one at school; the dominant culture has more prestige in the society than the minority ones; and most importantly for educational applications, there is a specialization of function for H and L language, for dominant and minority cultures. I have proposed that this relationship and distribution be called *dinomia* as it relates to varieties of culture.[3]

This concept has importance for teacher training and curriculum development because it recognizes the nature and viability of students' native culture, while at the same time providing for identification of the aspects of the dominant culture which need to be acquired for appropriate situations, and prediction of potential areas of cultural interference where there are conflicts or overlap between the two. All instruction which relates to developing and reinforcing positive feelings of individual and group identity should be based on such recognition and understanding.

A major hazard in teaching a second culture is that students may reject parts of their native culture without knowing or accepting comparable parts of the second, or that they will find themselves repeatedly facing cultural interference as the rules or values of one conflict with the other in a single situation or domain. When this happens, either one culture 'wins', or students must deal with emotional and cognitive stress.

As a target for bicultural education, dinomia emphasizes the acquisition of the dominant culture for minority group students in only those domains in which it is in minimal conflict with the minority culture, or in which is is essential for 'success' in the dominant society: education and communication to be sure, and perhaps business/economics and politics as well. Values, beliefs, and behaviors of the dominant culture in such domains as religion and family life only need to be learned for passive recognition and understanding, but not necessarily adopted for active use. (The converse would be true for majority group students in a bilingual-bicultural program.) Dinomia requires the productive acquisition of only those elements of the second culture which could coexist in complementary distribution with those elements of the first culture which must be maintained by their students who choose to retain native cultural identity.

Bicultural education should be an enriching experience for all students, not a limiting or compensatory one; it should broaden the range of choice for cultural identity which students may one day make, but it should not make such choices for them, nor force unnecessary or premature decisions.

Culture Traits and Generalizations

Many of us are uncomfortable when referring to or being identified as members of any special social group because of the stereotyping so frequently associated with such identification, and the pejorative connotations group labels may engender—including the label 'Anglo'. On the surface, at least, this discomfort with categorization is somewhat at odds with our positive views about 'cultural identity' in a more abstract sense. Identification with *which* culture(s)? With *what* beliefs, values, and behaviors (culture traits)? The fact that these traits operate primarily at an unconscious level—coupled with our hesitancy to make generalizations about cultural differences—probably explains the typical limitation of the cultural content of bilingual education to such superficial and relatively trivial phenomena as piñatas, rice boats, and folk dancing.

Our hesitancy to make cultural generalizations is justified. For example, the following list of characteristics of 'disadvantaged' or other 'culturally different' children is found in a textbook widely used for a course entitled Cultural Foundations of Education:

1. Their parents are less likely to belong to or attend church.
2. They do not share the principle of cleanliness. "Water costs money or effort if it must be carried from an outdoor pump."
3. They do not understand the principles of saving.
4. They cannot put reason before emotion.
5. They are freer and more social in their expressions of sex.
6. They have not learned that doing one's duty and living up to the expectations of others pays off.
7. They believe the future is non-existent.
8. They believe education is an obstacle course to be surmounted until they can go to work.

This exemplifies generalizations of a type which have no place at all in teacher training and classroom practices, except as examples of stereotyping. They are not culture traits at all, but negative statements of the values held by the stereotyper: attending church, cleanliness, thrift, sexual repression, future orientation, and the Golden Rule. These *positive* values might well be included in a list of traits for our dominant culture, but their expression in negative form says nothing about others. It does, however, say a great deal about the attitudes of the stereotyper toward the minority culture.[4]

Even some 'traits' which are supposed to be soundly based on educational research must be questioned for cultural bias. We are told, for instance, that American Indians have a low self concept. The Coleman report (1966) indicates that the pupil attitude factor has a stronger relation to achievement than all the 'school' factors together, and that Indian pupils in the twelfth grade have the lowest self concept of all minority groups tested. These data and similar interpretations of the Havighurst study (1970) have been widely accepted, but the low self concept is inferred largely from students' feelings that they have little or no control over their environment. However, many Indian cultures do not believe that actively controlling natural forces is desirable, or even reasonable. This research does not seem to take into account *Indian* perception of what constitutes a positive self concept, but rather evaluates the Indian self concept in terms of the values of the dominant culture.

Other conclusions about students' 'negative self image' may be equally ethnocentric when based on such 'evidence' as not knowing their birthdays. Children from some groups don't know their precise birth date because they have never celebrated it: it is not culturally important. Other dates may be emphasized instead. Vietnamese children, for instance, traditionally add a year to their age at Tet, and many children from a Latin American heritage traditionally celebrate their saint's day instead.

A trait often attributed to Mexican American culture is noncompetitiveness. 'They lead a peaceful rural existence and do not care to join the urban rat race. Nor is much attention paid to such competitive aspects of school as test scores and grades.'

A study of the cooperative vs. competitive behavior of Anglo, Black, Mexican American, and Mexican elementary school students (Madsen and Shapira 1970) shows the Anglos and Blacks most competitive, with Mexican Americans somewhat less but still much more so than the Mexicans. This may well be an urban/rural difference instead of an ethnic one, however, since the Mexican group was rural and only about twenty percent of the Mexican Americans in the Southwest still live in rural areas. It may also be a social class difference, since Wasserman (1971) reports more cooperative behavior among 'blue collar children'–whether Mexican American, Black, or Anglo. Another study by Kagan and Madsen (1971) included four and five year old children and showed no differences at all at that age. Only three percent of the moves of each group in the test rated 'competitive', and no group behavioral differences appeared along this dimension until age seven to nine. Yet another study (Del Campo 1970) finds that Mexican American children score *higher* on competitive values than do Anglos.

I am also suspicious of the 'active passive' distinction reported in educational research. A number of years ago I heard a well known Mexican psychologist report on his cross-cultural studies during a meeting at the National University in Mexico City. At the very time he was presenting his statistically impressive evidence that Mexicans are passive, the University was just beginning to recover from a full scale student riot. His conclusions were drawn from the responses to such multiple choice questions as, 'What would you do in case of an earthquake?' Texas Anglo students included in the study were judged 'active' for responding that they would run outside, while Mexicans were judged 'passive' for responding that they would stay inside. These responses prove only that Mexicans know more about earthquakes than do Texans. Californians, too, stay inside in doorways during an earthquake if they are in an area of tall buildings, and it usually takes only one such experience for children to learn such 'passivity'.

Yet another probable example of cultural bias in the interpretation of data results from the use of 'interaction analysis' (such as in the classroom observations reported by the Commission on Civil Rights 1973, which contrasted teacher 'positive responses' to Anglo vs. Mexican American students, and by Anglo vs. Mexican American teachers). Such studies are often questionable because they fail to recognize that assumptions as to what behavior constitutes a 'positive response' by a teacher to a student are themselves culture-bound and will not be the same for members of diverse cultural groups. Direct eye contact with the student may be positive, but it may be interpreted as aggressive or humiliating; smiling may be positive, but it may be derisive; touching may be positive, but it may be embarrassing or repugnant. Singling a student out for attention of any kind would not be considered a positive teacher response by a number of minority groups in the United States.

The kinds of cultural information which seem crucial for us to have, therefore, include answers to such questions as what constitutes a positive self image, and what behaviors will be interpreted as a positive teacher response. Because there are no 'canned' lists of culture traits which can be accepted out of hand, teacher competencies for bicultural education must include first knowing the significant questions to ask about cultures and then knowing how to get the answers, as well as knowing how to use the cultural information for instructional purposes.

Questions to Ask About Culture

This is not meant to be a definitive list of questions, but an indication of what general areas of culture might contain significant information for the teacher in a bilingual education program, together with illustrations of what kinds of specific questions might need answers and what their significance might be. The various aspects of culture do not have the same relative importance to people in different groups, but that is among the questions for which we need answers.

1. **General**

   a. What are the major stereotypes which you and others have about each cultural group? To what extent are these accepted by the group being typed?
   b. To what extent and in what areas has the traditional culture of each minority group changed in contact with the dominant American culture? In what areas has it been maintained?
   c. To what extent do individuals possess knowledge of or exhibit characteristics of traditional groups?

These general questions must be kept in mind when asking questions about 'traditional' or 'typical' cultural beliefs or behaviors in all of the areas of culture which follow. While there are systematic differences between groups of people which we need to recognize and understand, we need to critically analyze all information for the effects of stereotyping, recognize the facts of acculturation, and be sensitive to individual differences. Otherwise there is a danger of merely adding to the stereotypes, of incorrectly identifying minority groups in the United States with ancestral groups in the country of origin, or generalizing what is 'typical' to all.

2. **Family**

   a. Who is in a 'family'? Who among these (or others) live in one house?
   b. What is the hierarchy of authority in the family?
   c. What are the rights and responsibilities of each family member? Do children have an obligation to work to help the family?

d. What are the functions and obligations of the family in the larger social unit? To the school? To its individual members?
e. What is the relative importance of an individual family member vs. the family as a whole? What is the degree of solidarity or cohesiveness in the family?

The family is the initial and often the primary socialization unit for the child, and many of the individual's most basic social perceptions and values are formed in that context. An understanding of the family structure and system of expected responsibilities, values, and behaviors is essential to the teacher, not only so that these may be realistically portrayed and reflected in the classroom, but also to provide a source of guidance in dealing with the child or the child's parents or guardians. Such knowledge can be helpful in anticipating and interpreting the behaviors or attitudes of the child or other family members in particular situations. In addition, it may serve as a point of departure or contrast in presenting information about family patterns in the majority culture. Teachers at all levels should be aware of the often very subtle presuppositions about family structure and responsibilities which pervade literary and even nonfictional writing, and can lead to misunderstandings or self-depreciation on the part of the student. Since family structure is so variable, particularly under circumstances of immigration and acculturation, individual differences (including those associated with social class) should be carefully determined. At the same time, differences between expressions of group 'norms' or 'ideals' and individual reality should be appropriately recognized.

3. The Life Cycle

a. What are criteria for the definition of stages, periods, or transitions in life?
b. What are attitudes, expectations, and behaviors toward individuals at different stages in the life cycle? What stage of life is most valued? What stage of life is most 'difficult'?
c. What behaviors are appropriate or unacceptable for children of various ages? How might these conflict with behaviors taught or encouraged in the school?
d. How is language related to the life cycle?
e. How is the age of children computed? What commemoration is made of the child's birth (if any) and when?

The stages in the life cycle, while to some extent biologically determined, are like all aspects of human existence, basically culturally defined. *When* one ceases to be a child, when and by what criteria one becomes an adult, how one is treated at different stages by members of other age groups, what one's privileges and responsibilities are at different stages, are quite different in different societies. It is not 'natural', for example, for children to be uninhibited and noisy—this is a product of socialization in a particular society. In many societies (e.g., Samoan), children already have significant economic responsibilities by the time they are seven. Stages recognized in one culture, e.g., teenage, may be absent in others. Adulthood may be defined by something other than age, such as marriage or becoming a parent. Attitudes and values regarding stages differ widely; in some cultures, sixty is the age of wisdom, in others of retirement. Passage from one stage to another may be totally unmarked in one society, and a major traumatic event in another. Stages may also differ by socioeconomic class, as may also the attention given to occasions of passage. Of particular significance for educational (and sometimes mental health) concerns is the fact that for groups undergoing rapid acculturation, such as Koreans or Arabs, there may be wrenching changes taking place in the traditional roles, relationships, and responsibilities of different stages in the life cycle, making them individually variable and causing great psychological stresses and strains.

4. Roles

a. What roles within the group are available to whom, and how are they acquired? Is education relevant to this acquisition?
b. What is the knowledge of and perception by the child, the parents, and the community toward these roles, their availability, and possible or appropriate means of access to them?
c. Is language use important in the definition or social marking of roles?
d. Are there class differences in the expectations about child role attainment? Are these realistic?
e. Do particular roles have positive or malevolent characteristics?

In addition to many other aspects of culture, the early socialization of children involves learning a role. Initial role acquisition includes learning what behaviors are appropriate (and expected) when relating to different members within the family, and then when relating to different classes of individuals within the wider social group. Most children find the new roles they assume when beginning school a fairly natural extension of their earlier socialization experiences, but for some, patterns of social interaction which they have learned at home are not of value in the school context, and these children must acquire entirely new roles. Since the child's life aspirations are often based on roles recognized by the group, it is important for the teacher to know how these differ from or match roles which may be explicitly or implicitly taught in school. In addition, since children (and parents) from minority cultures often have limited experience with and understanding of majority culture roles and how to acquire them, the child's knowledge and perception of these matters should be examined also.

5. Interpersonal Relationships

- a. Is language competence a requirement or qualification for group membership?
- b. How do people greet each other? What forms of address are used between people in various roles?
- c. Do girls work and interact with boys? Is it proper?
- d. How is deference shown?
- e. How are insults expressed?
- f. Who may disagree with whom? Under what circumstances?
- g. Are mitigating forms used?

Mitigation techniques are different within different groups, and students may encounter many problems in our schools when they come from cultures that do not use the same ones that are accepted there. A middle class child from the dominant culture has learned to avoid unpleasant tasks with such indirect excuses as 'I'm tired. Can't I do that later?', 'Can I finish this first?', or by dawdling or day dreaming until the time is up. While these techniques are often unsuccessful, the attempt brings no serious reproof. If a student has not learned these cultural strategies and says 'No, I don't,' or just 'No'—which have essentially the same meaning—he may be considered belligerent or rude, and threatened with the principal's office. Teachers must be perceptive as to how they themselves (as culturally conditioned beings) interpret and respond to violations of sociolinguistic expectations and recognize that such 'violations' may simply reflect cross cultural differences in interactional rules and norms, not occasions for punishment.

6. Communication

- a. What languages, and varieties of each language, are used in the community? By whom? When? Where? For what purposes?
- b. Which varieties are written, and how widespread is knowledge of written forms?
- c. What are the characteristics of 'speaking well', and how do these relate to age, sex, context, or other social factors? What are the criteria for 'correctness'?
- d. What 'es, attitudes, or personality traits are associated with particular ways of speaking?
- e. What range is considered 'normal' speech behavior? What is considered a speech defect?
- f. Is learning language a source of pride? Is developing bilingual competence considered an advantage or a handicap?
- g. What is the functionality of the native language in the workplace or larger environment?
- h. What gestures or postures have special significance or may be considered objectionable? What meaning is attached to direct eye contact? To eye avoidance?
- i. Who may talk to whom? When? Where? About what?

There is no complete inventory of different social rules for language usage or of different attitudes toward language which may be consulted, but we must still consider both to be very important components of bilingual education; all aspects of culture involve communication. One very general difference concerns who should talk and when. The school supports the convention of talking one at a time (after raising a hand and being called on) and not interrupting; other cultures would consider that rude, a sure sign that no one was interested in what the primary speaker was saying. Some cultures feel it is inappropriate for children to talk at all in the presence of adults, and others that it is inappropriate to respond immediately to a question. The uses of silence differ, as do the contexts for the uses of different languages. Code-switching between English and the native language—actually a very complex linguistic skill—may be highly valued socially. No teacher in a bilingual program can afford not to have a thorough understanding of the status and uses of languages in the local community.

7. Decorum and Discipline

- a. What is decorum? How important is it for the individual and for the group?
- b. What is discipline? What counts as discipline in terms of the culture, and what doesn't? What is its importance and value?
- c. What behaviors are considered socially unacceptable for students of different age and sex?
- d. Who or what is considered responsible if a child misbehaves? The child? Parents? Older siblings? School? Society? The environment? Or is no blame ascribed?
- e. Who has authority over whom? To what extent can one person's will be imposed on another? By what means?
- f. How is the behavior of children traditionally controlled, to what extent, and in what domains?
- g. Do means of social control vary with recognized states in the

life cycle, membership in various social categories, or according to setting or offense?

h. What is the role of language in social control? What is the significance of using the first vs. the second language?

The choice of a language for controls and directions is important in a bilingual program, with English often perceived by students as milder than their home language; at the same time, students from other backgrounds may interpret the normal classroom projection level of English as a signal of anger, even when none is intended. Attempts by teachers to get parents to force children to do their homework or attend school may prove futile if the concept of coercion conflicts with basic cultural values. The desired ends may be achieved, not by imposing the will of the teacher or the school on the parent or child, but by cooperating with other effective mechanisms employed in the child's culture.

8. Religion

a. What is considered sacred and what secular?
b. What religious roles and authority are recognized in the community?
c. What is the role of children in religious practices? What are they supposed to know or not to know about the religion?
d. What should an outsider not know, or not acknowledge knowing?
e. What taboos are there? What should *not* be discussed in school; what questions should *not* be asked; what student behaviors should *not* be required?
f. Are there any external signs of participation in religious rituals (e.g., ashes, dress, marking)?
g. Are dietary restrictions to be observed, including fasting, on particular occasions?
h. Are there any prescribed religious procedures or forms of participation if there is a death in the family? What taboos are associated with death and the dead?

Violations of beliefs and practices in this area of culture probably result in the most serious conflicts which occur between home and school. Forcing a child to wash 'dirt' off his face (when it had ritual significance), bringing human bones to class for a science lesson, and insisting that children eat lunch during a period of a prescribed religious fast are all examples of very real mistakes made by teachers who did not understand the religion of their students.

9. Health and Hygiene

a. Who or what is believed to cause illness or death (e.g., the 'germ theory' vs. supernatural or other causes)?
b. Who or what is responsible for curing?
c. How are specific illnesses treated? To what extent do individuals utilize or accept 'modern' medical practices by doctors and other health professionals?
d. What beliefs, taboos, and practices are associated with menstruation and the onset of puberty?
e. What are beliefs regarding conception and childbirth?
f. What beliefs or practices are there with regard to bodily hygiene (e.g., bathing frequency and purpose)?
g. If a student were involved in an accident at school, would any of the common first aid practices be unacceptable?

Most cultures have traditional concepts regarding the body, health, illness, and curing which are based in part on the accumulation of practical experience and in part on often profound philosophical and religious beliefs. The cooperation and support of the local community in a bilingual program may depend upon the evidence of respect and acceptance of these beliefs and practices, many of which are in fact demonstrably efficacious. At the same time, lack of understanding by parents of the cause and spread of certain diseases creates a need for culturally sensitive communication to ensure appropriate treatment (including quarantine for infectious diseases, regular administration of prescribed medication, etc.). In addition, an adequate understanding of traditional concepts may be necessary for the adequate diagnosis of illness.

10. Food

a. What is eaten? In what order? How often?
b. What foods are favorites? What taboo? What 'typical'?
c. What rules are observed during meals regarding age and sex roles within the family, the order of serving, seating, utensils used, and appropriate verbal formulas (e.g., how, and if, one may request, refuse, or thank)?
d. What social obligations are there with regard to food giving, preparation, reciprocity, and honoring people?
e. What relation does food have to health? What medicinal uses are made of food, or categories of food?
f. What are the taboos or prescriptions associated with the handling, offering, or discarding of food?

Food—including the very definition of what does and what does not constitute food—is of enormous social, symbolic, and economic importance in all cultures. The exchange of food and conditions on its exchange form a central theme in some cultures, and major social values are built around it in others. In many cultures it even has religious significance, often as expressed in taboos on consumption or prescribed use in ceremonies. The rules for the eating of food may significantly reflect and provide a means of maintaining the social order. The growing realization that some of the nutritional concepts of the majority culture (such as drinking milk) may be deleterious to certain groups or individuals underscores the cultural basis of nutritional science. Textbooks should be examined for ways in which their portrayal of food may conflict with community values.

11. Dress and Personal Appearance

a. What clothing is 'typical'? What is worn for special occasions? What seasonal differences are considered appropriate?
b. What significance does dress have for group identity?
c. How does dress differ for age, sex, and social class?
d. What restrictions are imposed for 'modesty' (e.g., can girls wear shorts, or shower in the gym)?
e. What is the concept of beauty, or attractiveness? How important is physical appearance in the culture? What characteristics are most valued?
f. What constitutes a 'compliment', and what form should it take (e.g., in traditional Latin American culture, telling a woman she is getting fat is a compliment)?
g. Does the color of dress have symbolic significance (e.g., black vs. white for mourning)?

Since dress and personal appearance are for the most part readily observable, most of the questions raised are fairly easy to answer. Despite this fact, however, probably more cross-cultural communication 'misfires' take place in this area than any other. In part this is because the values underlying dress and appearance are not as easily discovered, leaving the superficial aspects highly susceptible to misinterpretation and stereotyping, and in part because no other aspect of a person's behavior (except perhaps speech) is so strongly tied to self image and group identity. The significance of this area makes it one which teachers and administrators need to thoroughly understand. At the same time, it is an area for which textbooks need to be examined for implicit cultural bias.

12. History and Traditions

a. What individuals and events in history are a source of pride for the group?
b. To what extent is knowledge of the group's history preserved?

c. In what forms and in what ways is it passed on?
d. To what extent is there a literate tradition of the history of the group (i.e., written history, and knowledge of written history within the group itself)?
e. To what extent are traditions and historical events reflected in aphorisms and proverbs?
f. Do any ceremonies or festive occasions re-enact historical events?
g. How and to what extent does the group's knowledge of history coincide with or depart from 'scientific' theories of creation, evolution, and historical development?
h. To what extent does the group in the United States identify with the history and traditions of their country of origin?
i. What changes have taken place in the country of origin since the group or individuals emigrated?
j. For what reasons and under what circumstances did the group or individuals come to the United States (or did the United States come to them)?

Prior to the spread of mass public education in this century, the majority of people in most countries were totally or largely illiterate, and possessed little knowledge of the history or cultural achievements of their country or ethnic group. Among native groups on this continent and elsewhere who lacked a means of graphically representing their languages, knowledge of historical events rarely extended back more than a few generations and, beyond that point, merged into myth. Even with compulsory public education and a highly literate population in the U.S. today, actual knowledge of history on the part of most people is minimal and of literature and art even less. Viewed against such a background, it should not be surprising that many members of minority groups in the U.S., drawn as they have been primarily from uneducated peasant stock, possess little knowledge of the history of their country of origin, or of its literary and artistic monuments. Immigrant farmworkers from Mexico do not revel in the glory of 16th century Spanish literature any more than Anglo farmworkers in the Midwest take rapturous delight in Shakespeare. These realities must be kept carefully in mind if the absurdities of the 'romantic fallacy' are to be avoided. Many bilingual education curricula commit the error of introducing historical and literary-artistic content of questionable relevance from a group's country of origin, and totally ignore the history and achievements of the group within the U.S. The effect of the romantic fallacy is to produce a curriculum which is irrelevant to the actual background and experiences of the students in the program. The questions above are designed to provide a more realistic basis for the treatment of this area in the curriculum.

13. Holidays and Celebrations

a. What holidays and celebrations are observed by the group and individuals?
b. What is their purpose (e.g., political, seasonal, religious, didactic)?
c. Which are especially important for children and why?
d. What cultural values do they intend to inculcate?
e. What aspects of socialization/enculturation do they further?
f. Do parents and students know and understand school holidays and behavior appropriate for them (including appropriate non-attendance)?

Holidays and celebrations are among the most obvious aspects of a culture, and for that reason are readily adopted by schools attempting to be 'bicultural'. However, often only the most superficial aspects of the celebrations are imported into the school context, and there is great danger that they may be distorted in the process, or that the incorporation of the activities in the curriculum may be taken to satisfy the need for minority cultural content, and so prevent the inclusion of much more basic and important aspects of culture. Worse yet, the observance of celebrations may reinforce the stereotypic misconception that this is all there is to the other culture. Hence great care should be taken to learn the true significance of such events, and their function within the context of *the student's own culture and community* (not just that of some foreign country). Some aspects of some celebrations, including songs, belong to the home or other locale and should not be brought into the school. Among Native American groups, certain songs or dances are of a sacred nature and should never be performed by the wrong persons or at the wrong time of year. Conversely, parents may not understand the meaning of American holidays, and especially why school may be closed, so these matters must be carefully taught, and communicated to the parents as well as the students.

14. Education

a. What is the purpose of education?
b. What kinds of learning are favored (e.g., rote, inductive)?
c. What methods for teaching and learning are used at home (e.g., modeling and imitation, didactic stories and proverbs, direct verbal instruction)?
d. Do methods of teaching and learning vary with recognized stages in the life cycle? With the setting? According to what is being taught or learned?

e. What is the role of language in learning and teaching?
f. Is it appropriate for students to ask questions or volunteer information? If so, what behaviors signal this? If not, what negative attitudes does it engender?
g. What constitutes a 'positive response' by a teacher to a student? By a student to a teacher?
h. How many years is it considered 'normal' for children to go to school?
i. Are there different expectations by parents, teachers, and students with respect to different groups? In different subjects? For boys vs. girls?

Although our educational system most closely represents the culture of our mainstream middle-class population, it has developed some attitudes, values, and expectations in its own right which set it apart as a subculture within our society in these respects. Successful advancement in the system quite naturally requires adoption of or adaptation to these concepts. Educators must be seen from this perspective as successfully acculturated (since they must have adapted themselves to the subculture in order to complete the years of training for certification); they are transmitters of these attitudes, values, and expectations to the next generation so that it, too, may 'achieve' in school. It is a self-perpetuating cycle.

Educators must therefore learn about their own system of learning and realize that education does not have the same ends and means for members of different social groups. Stereotypes result if we assume that other systems of education are less advanced, or the students who don't succeed in our particular system are 'deficient' in some respect. Since students learn how to learn from their families in early childhood, cultural differences are very well established by kindergarten or first grade.

15. Work and Play

a. What range of behaviors are considered 'work' and what 'play'?
b. What kinds of work are prestigious and why?
c. Why is work valued (e.g., financial gain, group welfare, individual satisfaction, promotion of group cohesiveness, fulfillment or creation of obligations to/from others, position in the community)?
d. Are there stereotypes about what a particular group will do?
e. What is the purpose of play (e.g., to practice social roles, skills training, muscle development and coordination)?

Play is often not valued positively in our culture, but is counterpoised to the serious business of life, which we call work. Nevertheless, as anthropologists have shown, what is thought of as play may have a strong educational function aimed at developing certain patterns of socialization. In addition, what may superficially appear to an outside observer to be play may have a serious religious purpose. The system of rewards associated with the attainment of particular roles or the fulfillment of various kinds of activities may differ considerably between cultural groups or even between social classes, and are subject to change over time or under conditions of acculturation. The teacher should be familiar with these factors, particularly in implementing a career education program, to minimize cross cultural conflict and maximize effective learning.

16. Time and Space

a. What beliefs or values are associated with concepts of time? How important is 'punctuality'? Speed of performance when taking a test?

b. Is control or prescriptive organization of children's time required (e.g., must homework be done before watching TV, is 'bedtime' a scheduled event)?

c. Are particular behavioral prescriptions or taboos associated with the seasons (e.g., not singing certain songs in the summertime or a snake will bite, not eating oysters when there is an R in the month)?

d. Is there a seasonal organization of work or other activities?

e. What is acceptable presence or grouping of individuals (e.g., do children stay with adults and listen or go outside)?

f. How do individuals organize themselves spatially in groups (e.g., in rows, circles, around tables, on the floor, in the middle of the room, around its circumference)?

g. What is the spatial organization of the home (e.g., areas alloted to children or open to children, appropriate activities in various areas of the home)?

h. What geo spatial concepts, understandings, and beliefs exist in the group or are known to individuals?

i. What is the knowledge and significance of cardinal directions (North, South, East, West)? At what age are these concepts acquired?

j. What significance is associated with different directions or places (e.g., heaven is up, people are buried facing West)?

The organization of time and space is of enormous significance in most cultures, and one of the most frequent areas for cross cultural conflict or misunderstanding, in large part because it is so often unconscious. Edward T. Hall (1959) has even referred to it as 'the silent language' in the title of his book by that name. In particular, the teacher cannot assume that many of the concepts and attitudes regarding time and space (including personal space) held by the majority culture can be taken for granted, but must be explicitly taught. At the same time, a knowledge of the concepts and attitudes of the minority group regarding time and space is important, since it must form a point of departure in teaching, and is essential if the teacher is to recognize when students (or their parents) are following the rules of their own culture for appropriate behavior, so as to avoid penalizing them for apparent infraction of rules they do not know.

17. Natural Phenomena

a. What beliefs and practices are associated with the sun and moon (including eclipses and phases of the moon), comets, and stars?

b. Who or what is responsible for rain, lightning, thunder, earthquakes, droughts, floods, and hurricanes?

c. Are particular behavioral prescriptions or taboos associated with natural phenomena? What sanctions are there against individuals violating restrictions or prescriptions?

d. What means are there for obviating the negative effects of natural phenomena?

e. How and to what extent does the group's beliefs about these phenomena coincide with or depart from 'scientific' theories?

f. To what extent are traditional group beliefs still held by individuals within the community?

Science is sometimes considered a culturally neutral area of the curriculum, but many of the topics taught under that label are loaded with culture-specific beliefs, values, and behavioral rules. While many students succeed in keeping the theories learned at home and school compartmentalized so they may 'believe' both concurrently, with one or the other called to consciousness depending on the context and even the language being used, many others find this area of the curriculum a source of cultural conflict and confrontation. Whenever such conflict can be anticipated, or when students question a scientific theory on the basis of teachings from home and community, the teacher should not hesitate to say that while the school theories are believed by many, there are also many who disagree (which is quite true). Above all, the teacher should not convey the impression that there is only *one* explanation for natural phenomena, or that people who hold differing views are stupid or superstitious. Even scientists today are increasingly becoming aware of the extent to which culture affects their concepts and perceptions. Science, as a cultural phenomenon itself, can never be entirely culture-free.

18. Pets and Other Animals

a. Which animals are valued, and for what reasons?
b. Which animals are considered appropriate as pets; which are inappropriate, and why?
c. Are particular behavioral prescriptions or taboos associated with particular animals?
d. Are any animals of religious significance? Of historical importance?
e. Are there seasonal restrictions on talking about or depicting certain animals (e.g., except when hibernating, during hunting season)?
f. What attitudes are held toward other individuals or groups which have different beliefs and behaviors with respect to animals?
g. Which animals may be kept in the classroom? Which may not, and why?

The typical social studies unit on pets begins with the ethnocentric assumption that everyone considers the same species of animals to be appropriate for this category. The most serious cultural violations occur in cases where particular animals have religious significance, and where even talking or reading about them is restricted or prohibited. Less serious, though unpleasant, are the negative attitudes which may be directed toward the teacher who expresses fondness for cats or dogs, for instance, which are considered 'unclean' in some other cultures. Again, information on cultural differences is essential.

19. Art and Music

a. What forms of art and music are most highly valued?
b. What media and instruments are traditionally used?
c. What conventions are of particular significance? How do artistic conventions differ from those used or taught in school (e.g., the musical scale, two dimensional representation of distance or depth)?
d. Is the creation of art and music limited to specialists, or within the competence of a wide range of individuals in the community?
e. What forms of art and music are considered appropriate for children to perform or appreciate?
f. Are there any behavioral prescriptions or taboos related to art and music (e.g., can both men and women sing, does cutting faces in pumpkins or other fruits and vegetables violate religious concepts)?
g. How and to what extent may approval or disapproval be expressed?

Most serious conflicts in this area of the curriculum, as in others, occur when religious restrictions are violated. These range from depiction of the human form to the 'desecration' of living things (as in cutting jack o lantern faces or stringing berries). Artistic conventions are very important for the interpretation of any tests which make use of pictures, adding to their potential for cultural bias. Each culture has prescribed conventions for both art and music, and no experience which is outside the bounds of those conventions will be recognized or appreciated as 'art'. Receptive appreciation of culturally different conventions may be cultivated, but truly satisfying esthetic experience is probably limited to the range of conventions which has been internalized as part of socialization. Of course, in art as in all else, it is essential to avoid stereotyping the individual, particularly in minority groups undergoing rapid acculturation.

20. Expectations and Aspirations

a. What defines the concepts of 'disadvantaged' and 'successful'?
b. To what extent is it possible or proper for an individual to express future goals (e.g., is it appropriate to ask, 'What do you want to be when you grow up?')?
c. What beliefs are held regarding 'luck' and 'fate'?
d. What significance does adherence to the traditional culture of the group have for the individual's potential achievement (from both the viewpoint of the minority and dominant cultures)?
e. What significance does the acquisition of the majority culture and the English language have (from both minority and dominant cultural perceptions)?
f. What potential roles are available within the native community which can provide individual fulfillment and satisfaction?
g. Do parents expect and desire assimilation of children to the dominant culture as a result of education and the acquisition of English?
h. Are the attitudes of community members and individuals the same as or different from those of community spokesmen?

One of the primary rationales for bilingual education is the enhancement of minority students' self image, but little attention is given to the cultural relativity of that concept. Adopting dominant values for personal success' and 'fulfillment' is usually a late stage in the process of acculturation; dominant culture expectations and aspirations should never be assumed of children who are still primarily under the enculturation influences of the home, and they should never be imposed on individuals who choose to find their own fulfillment and satisfaction within the native community. More members of minority groups today are seeking to find fulfillment within their traditional communities, and the expectation that success is to be measured in the context of the larger society – which is implicit or subtly present in much school text materials, tests, and teacher attitudes or behaviors – can have the strong and dysfunctional effect of contributing to a sense of *anomie* or failure on the part of the student.

To reiterate, education is not just formal schooling, but includes all of the formal and informal procedures for transmitting the knowledge and values of a group from one generation to another, whether in the form of telling stories and proverbs in the family or holding organized classes to teach factual or technical information. Similarly, preferred styles of learning may be present among certain groups or in particular contexts. Trial and error learning, the cornerstone of our educational methodology (including the use of tests), may be antithetical to students' cultural values and have dysfunctional results because it causes embarrassment by forcing students to demonstrate knowledge or skill mastery before they are ready. Traditional education in some cultures may be primarily religious in orientation, or may have the important function of supporting the maintenance of social structures or values which are at variance with those taught in the majority culture secular public school. The potential conflicts which may arise in bicultural situations clearly need to be recognized if the students' educational experience is to be positive, and consonant with the expectations and desires of the parents and the community.

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Reviews

CONVERSATIONS OF MIGUEL AND MARIA: HOW CHILDREN LEARN A SECOND LANGUAGE. Linda Ventriglia. Reading, Massachusetts: Addison-Wesley Publishing Company, 1982. Pp. ix + 182.

Conversations of Miguel and Maria: How Children Learn a Second Language offers more than its cover title implies. It is not only a text which analyzes the way in which children learn a second language, it also explores the implications of how children learn, and suggests sound and reasonable teaching strategies. Hence, it is a much needed 'how-to' guide.

Ventriglia's book is based on a study of four hundred and fifty conversations recorded from children of diverse native languages. Analyzing the conversations with insights from recent research, she deduces cognitive styles, learning strategies, and what she calls motivational or attitudinal styles which both influence cognitive styles and direct the young child in the use of particular learning strategies.

The format of the text is interesting and readable. Each chapter begins with a conversation of Miguel and Maria. Ventriglia is a gifted conjurer of character and the two young protagonists, though fictional composites of the many language groups represented in the study, assume a reality for the reader. Miguel and Maria embody ubiquitous traits of children and yet appear as distinct individuals.

Each conversation is analysed in terms of the learning processes Ventriglia sees operating in it. And each chapter ends with a section on implications for second language learning and classroom teaching. In these pertinent sections, Ventriglia gives several examples of specific teaching strategies and activities so that teachers can adapt or develop similar techniques and materials to meet the same ends. She clearly describes a classroom in which young students are very much involved in learning, though they take on that learning at their own pace and in their own style, guided by teacher planned experiences. Where drill is recommended, it is the natural drill of game or play, it is the repetition children engage in spontaneously and willingly, and it is more akin to Piaget's observation that children set up their own practice patterns than it is to Skinnerian inspired repetition exercises.

Cognitive Developmental Strategies

Part I of *Conversations* cites cognitive developmental strategies which children use in second language learning. Ventriglia notes three processes here: *Bridging*, *Chunking*, and *Creating*.

In *Bridging*, children appear to tie words to concepts they already know in their first language. Bridging is the first clearly discernable strategy children employ. However, Ventriglia stresses that simply listening, or receptive

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learning, while assuredly not clearly discernable, is a most important factor in second language learning and children must be afforded the time and opportunity they need to engage in it.

Children move or develop from Bridging to *Chunking*, a process whereby they use whole chunks or phrases of language they have heard in their efforts to communicate. Finally, young children employ *Creating*, combining words and patterns to make meaning.

These particular processes are well described in recent psycholinguistic literature. Ventriglia is not simply assigning catchy names to them, however. She describes them through a careful review of the literature and meticulously gives credit to the schools of thought and to the scholars associated with each process. Her contribution in this section rests in her clear outline of the strategies which renders them recognizable to teachers so that they, upon discerning them, can plan appropriate teaching activities. She also demonstrates how such activities can be planned to meet the differing linguistic abilities of the students participating in them. The classroom she depicts is a classroom where young children learn through interaction with each other and with the teacher.

Social Affective Strategies

Part II of *Conversations* is faithful to the theme that children learn language through meaningful interaction. Here, Ventriglia focuses on those social-affective strategies which children use naturally. For example, she notes that children make inferences and guesses about the meanings in their second language. And in their guessing, they look to others for clues. To illustrate the strategy, she presents Miguel in a situation where he learns the meaning of a word from clues his classmates provide. In a show-and-tell type of activity, Miguel is asked what color the ribbon on his Easter basket is. He knows his colors in English but he is unsure of the meaning of the word, ribbon. His eyes search the circle of children for one who will give him a clue. Maria points to a ribbon in another girl's hair. Miguel understands. "A yellow ribbon," he says triumphantly.

Guessing and making inferences are thinking skills which we all use daily. They are, as well, developmental in nature, and their practice and refinement are basic to the growth of logic. In her suggestions for classroom activities to foster inferencing, Ventriglia makes an important link between early childhood pedagogy and second language learning. Teachers trained in that pedagogy will recognize that the kinds of activities they see as providing practice in thinking skills can also be geared effectively to second language learning.

Code switching, both linguistic and cultural, is one of the most important strategies cited in this section. Ventriglia argues that this strategy leads finally to a linguistic and social flexibility and to a rapport between two cultural identities. The role of the teacher in helping students establish a positive rapport between two communities is crucial, just as it is crucial that teachers perceive such code switching as an integral part of the second language learning process.

Learning Styles

In addition to social-affective strategies, Ventriglia also categorizes three distinct learning styles: 1. *Beading*, a style of learning based on the individual's need to learn a word at a time, a style in which meaning or semantics is of the utmost importance, 2. *Braiding*, a style which utilizes chunking, in which the learner attends to the context of phrases and to the relationships among them, 3. *Orchestrating*, a style in which sounds and the repetition of those sounds are the individual's key to language.

One style is not better than another. Each represents only a mode of learning. Nor are the styles mutually exclusive, for all three are combined by children as they become immersed in the second language learning process.

Motivational Styles

Motivational styles play a part in determining which cognitive style a child may use. All children undoubtedly experience some sort of identity crisis when they leave the confines of their homes and enter into the new environment of the school. It is axiomatic that when the values, attitudes, and modes of expression in the school setting are drastically different from those of a child's home, the identity crisis will be greater in proportion to those differences. Like Erikson (1968) whom she cites, Ventriglia does not see identity crisis per se as an evil or as a malfunctioning of the personality. Rather, it is a dynamic state by which the child continually defines selfhood.

The unique personality traits and penchants of each individual combine with myriad factors, including sociolinguistic ones, to influence the way in which identity crisis is resolved. Both the mode and the outcome of the resolution may be debilitating or enabling, or may partake of a kaleidoscope of nuances between two such extremes.

A healthy self image, enriched by the ability to function in a bilingual, multicultural world, is, of course, a teacher's cherished goal for students. Yet even in the best of all bilingual worlds, crisis exists. There will always be situations where the student is forced to identify with one language or with one culture over another. And there must be times when making the choice represents a real or imagined loss or denial of one culture, even if that loss is only momentary.

Conversations records such instances and, in identifying the three motivational styles which prompt the use of certain social-affective strategies, Ventriglia offers some suggestions on guiding children who exhibit them. The motivational styles are *Crystalizing*, *Crossing-Over*, and *Crisscrossing*.

In the first, Crystalizing, children initially reject the second language and the culture it represents, and maintain their identity with their native language and culture. In the second, Crossing-Over, the student is characterized by a decided preference for the second language and culture over the first. The third style, Crisscrossing, involves an identification with both languages and cultures.

All three styles may manifest themselves at different times in a given child And they are viewed as the natural psychological responses of children. It is in keeping with the general tone of her thesis that Ventriglia views the motivational styles in terms of elements within them which can be used positively to strengthen healthy language and culture learning.

For example, of the two fictional children who exemplify the second language learning styles, Maria is a Crystalizer. She desires to maintain Spanish as her most frequently used language, and she socializes little with English speaking children outside the classroom. She is a cautious speaker of English, preferring to speak only when she is confident of being correct. At this point, most of her English practice comes in the school setting Ventriglia's suggestions make sense for this child: stories on tapes, expressive language in choral response so that the student does not feel singled out, pairing with an English speaker who is 'motherly' rather than aggressive, enlisting parent involvement so that the student sees interaction and rapport between school and home (and L_1 and L_2), and activities in which the Crystalizer can speak with that confidence so needed.

Despite the richness of *Conversations*, there are a few jarring flaws. In her discussion of bilingual classroom procedures, Ventriglia states that there is evidence to support the teaching of math concepts in only the language of the predominant culture. She does not cite the source of this evidence, nor does she mention evidence to the contrary.

The statement is puzzling and incongruous in the text. Math concepts particularly in early childhood curriculum, are taught in numerous ways involving social situations as well as problem-solving with a variety of manipulative materials. Children work with, and play with, the very essence of mathematical thinking long before, and even while, they are learning basic math facts. Seriation, measurement, sets, patterns, and more are approached through activity, and through the language of the activity. A child decides how many stars s/he can give each classmate so that each will have the same amount, or s/he makes a set of blue buttons and then finds a way to keep that set intact while incorporating all the large blue buttons into a set of all large buttons. An intuitive understanding of basic mathematical operations is thus formed, laying the basics for firm comprehension of abstract operations and their symbols. Math activities should be part of ESL curriculum, to be sure, but they must be part of native language curriculum as well if young children are to draw upon the thinking constructs they have already developed. All of Ventriglia's discussion and recommended activities preceding and following this strange comment on math instruction for bilingual children seem to war with the comment, rendering it the gratuitous anachronism it is, and must be, until some clarification shall be made to redeem it. And Ventriglia proffers no redemption for it in this text.

Another lapse in reference citing occurs when Ventriglia talks about studies of self-concept in minority language children. She writes, "Evidence from research concerning the self-concept among children indicates a tendency of children from ethnic minorities to make a negative evaluation of themselves, their skin color, and their culture." (p. 109). No reference to that research is cited. And this omission, like the one noted above, is glaring precisely because chapter and verse are so scrupulously noted in the main body of the text.

Perhaps it might be possible to fault Ventriglia for not delving more deeply into effects of community attitudes or the socio-economic environment on language learning, but this reviewer would not. Certainly, such knowledge, as well as knowledge of all phases of a student's home culture (such as are delineated in Saville-Troike's fine book, *A Guide to Culture in the Classroom*, 1978) are now recognized as necessary to the classroom and ESL teacher (bilingual or not). Nowhere does Ventriglia deny that necessity, and indeed she alludes to it in a number of contexts. A more thorough investigation of such undeniably critical factors can and should be sought in other texts. *Conversations* succeeds as an invaluable resource guide on its own terms for it weaves important second language acquisition research and theory into the tenets of sound early childhood education curriculum. The resulting tapestry well merits its place in every teacher's library.

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ERIC/CLL News Bulletin

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A WHOLE LANGUAGE PROGRAM FOR REFUGEE CHILDREN

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> Babies learn from birth to talk. They do it of their own accord. They don't have to go to school first, to learn phonetics or sentence structure. They learn in the cradle and the pram—first from their own free playful exploration, then from the important people round them, their own important people.
>
> And if the child's "important people" encourage and delight in the child, and if neither they nor society clamps down, then the child not only becomes fluent, but learns the self-organizing power of words . . . the power that enables a child to predict and plan a future.
>
> —(Berg, 1977, p. 35)

Vilay is a 10-year-old Lao boy who spent the first five years of life living in a small village in the mountains. His was a farming family that fled Laos after the Pathet Lao takeover in 1975. After five years in refugee camps in Thailand, Vilay and his family were resettled in Minnesota. Vilay now finds himself in a new school in the United States. He is unable to understand most of what his teacher says and is virtually unable to express himself. Since Vilay has never really been in a classroom before, he feels anxious throughout the school day because he does not understand what is going on. Vilay is becoming withdrawn and isolated; he has made few friends and is unable to talk to his teachers or classmates. Furthermore, he is already behind his American peers academically and has little hope of catching up.

Vilay's situation has become a common one for numerous immigrant and refugee children entering schools in the United States. Vilay is one of many limited-English-proficient (LEP) children in American schools who are having difficulty adjusting socially and academically because of the problems with learning English as a second language (ESL).

The Bureau for Refugee Programs of the U.S. Department of State has recently provided one solution to the problems encountered by refugee children like Vilay as they enroll in their new schools upon arrival. The bureau has funded a new program for Cambodian, Lao, and Vietnamese children between the ages of 6 and 11 in the Philippine Refugee Processing Center. Called Preparing Refugees for Elementary Programs (PREP), the program is operated by the World Relief Corporation. Its goal is to prepare children for further learning in the United States by teaching the linguistic, academic, and interpersonal skills needed for successful entry into elementary schools. This program is dedicated to helping children learn how to learn and to develop academic and interpersonal skills through activities such as working in groups, playing at recess, completing homework assignments, doing projects, taking tests, and using the library.

Guiding Principles for the PREP Program: Support of Research

The past several years have brought about many advances in second language acquisition research that have resulted in great progress in the way in which ESL is taught. Many previous assumptions have changed, and new methods have emerged for helping children acquire English. Traditional second language teaching methods have been found to contradict the way in which language naturally develops in children. The belief that language learning is habit formation and that drills and grammar exercises reinforce good habits does not allow language to emerge in natural developmental stages.

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In an attempt to make the PREP program effective, findings from current research on how children learn to speak, read, and write a second language were used as the basis for the curriculum; the following guiding principles for the program were derived from these findings.

1. *Children learn a second language in much the same way as they learned their first language.* Current research (Dulay, Burt, & Krashen, 1982) suggests that rather than learning a second language formally and through a conscious process, children acquire a second language in a natural, subconscious manner. Much as in learning a first language, young second language acquirers go through a "silent period" before they actually begin to speak, and when they do begin, speech emerges gradually on its own (Krashen & Terrel, 1983).

2. *Students acquire language most quickly when the language they encounter is made comprehensible.* As in first language acquisition, second language acquirers need sufficient "comprehensible" linguistic input so they can begin to make sense of the language (Krashen, 1981). The notion of comprehensible input suggests an environment rich in natural rather than formal language, where the focus is on communicating a real message for a real purpose. Even though much of what they hear is unfamiliar to them, children can derive meaning from context and people's expressions and gestures. For children at the early stages of acquisition, simple vocabulary and sentences, frequent facial expressions and body gestures to emphasize meaning, and many pictures and actual objects should be used to enhance meaning.

See WHOLE LANGUAGE, p. 4

From WHOLE LANGUAGE, p. 1

3. *Children are developing conceptually as well as linguistically.* Research suggests that using a newly acquired language in school is different from using a new language in other settings. Using language in school to learn complex concepts places different demands on second language learners (Cummins, 1982). Whereas most LEP adults have developed conceptually and may simply lack sufficient English vocabulary to express themselves, young children often have not developed certain thinking skills such as how to classify, compare, sequence, or infer. Because children must first understand a concept before applying a label to it, instructional activities must teach the concept first and the language of the concept second. In addition, because children vary greatly in their ability to grasp certain concepts, and because in many cases refugee children's cognitive skills have not been fully developed, instruction must include a variety of activities to teach or reinforce any given concept. Thus, children need to develop the concepts as well as the academic language skills to participate effectively in the classroom.

4. *Instruction is most effective within a meaningful, natural context.* Recent research supports what teachers have suspected all along— that focusing on grammar and memorization of dialogues does not significantly contribute to learning a second language; that using less structured activities in more natural and meaningful contexts seems to be more motivating and more effective; and that learning to speak, read, and write a second language naturally follows many of the same principles of development as the first language.

The teaching approaches that best take into account these findings are the Whole Language Approach and the Natural Approach. Activities used in these approaches take into account children's natural developmental stages and involve real communicative situations that focus on meaning rather than form. These activities also revolve around specific content in a natural setting, such as in a science experiment.

5. *Children learn by doing.* Research has found that instruction that focuses on learning language per se is less effective for children who are acquiring language as a side effect of doing other learning activities. A curriculum designed for this age group should offer a variety of meaningful, interesting activities that will engage the children and stimulate them to generate language.

6. *Students show most progress with their new language if they are confident about using it.* Affective factors may limit or enhance the amount of comprehensible input that children are able to process (Krashen, 1981). Anxiety or low motivation can inhibit the acquisition process by filtering or blocking the input. This notion suggests that optimum acquisition takes place in a nonthreatening, stimulating environment where children feel motivated and self-confident in using their new language to express themselves and communicate with others. Thus teachers must refrain from overt language corrections that cause children to feel anxious about their abilities. Teachers need to allow for the flow of natural communication rather than concentrate on achieving perfection from the beginning. As students become more comfortable using their new language, teachers' modeling brings about accuracy in the students' production.

7. *Math and science are best taught through a problem-solving approach.* Children acquire mathematical and scientific concepts by discovering relationships between objects in their own environment. Through free and guided exploration and hands-on activities, children can discover patterns, classifications, numeration, and characteristics of numbers. By using familiar materials, a teacher can gradually build a bridge to the adult world of abstractions. This approach, called the discovery approach, is especially useful for children who lack the language proficiency to talk about the concept being learned.

8. *Developing literacy in a second language follows the same principles as the development of literacy in the first language.* Most children in literate societies are introduced to reading in a special way: by seeing parents immersed in the act of reading and by sharing with them the enjoyable experience of "story time." They learn that reading is rewarding and enjoyable and that print is simply a representation of speech. Children in literate environments also develop the ability to write naturally, and they seem to have an intrinsic desire to produce "written language." At the initial stages of writing, which some researchers call mock writing (Graves, 1983), children invent their own spelling, but do so in a rule-governed way.

Although the emergence of literacy comes naturally to children from literate homes, it may be out of reach for children from nonliterate backgrounds. The need for literacy to emerge in this natural way is especially crucial for second language learners. Students learning to read and write in ESL need to be introduced to literacy in a meaningful way (Goodman, 1986), to make the link between oral language and print as naturally as possible (Holdaway, 1979), and to be given the opportunity to enjoy reading and writing (Smith, 1978).

9. *Native language support is essential for optimal development of bilingual proficiency.* Students who have not gained full proficiency in the second language acquire concepts most easily in their native language. They then transfer the conceptual knowledge to the second language only after it is sufficiently developed. Students need conceptual input in the native language to ensure comprehension of complex material. In addition for a second language to develop most efficiently, a strong foundation must be laid in a child's native language. Because native-language resources are limited, however, most educational programs for LEP students, including the PREP program, may be able to offer students only limited support in the native language. All possible community resources should be used to supplement the instruction children receive in English, such as tape-recording a member of the community telling a story to the children in the native language.

10. *Individual differences must be taken into account in the instructional approach used with LEP students. LEP children in general, and refugees in particular, differ vastly from one another in many ways including their educational background, learning styles, and native language proficiency.* Because these individual characteristics make a significant difference in the way in which a child learns, provisions must be made to address individual children's needs in a classroom setting. This can be achieved by setting up cooperative learning groups, learning centers, and peer tutoring.

11. *Parents' involvement in their children's education is essential to an effective instructional program.* Research shows that when parents are more involved in school, their children do better (Simich-Dudgeon, 1987). Parents can provide a valuable resource by bringing their native culture into the classroom and by providing support to their children in the native language. Whenever possible, parents should be invited to join in school activities; they can attend parent-teacher conferences and should be invited to participate in any special artistic and athletic events with their children (also see the article by Myriam Met, this issue).

Oral Language Development: The Natural Approach

PREP English Language Units use the Natural Approach, which rests on two assumptions: (a) Speech is not taught directly; instead, students acquire it through comprehensible input in low-anxiety environments; and (b) Speech emerges in natural stages, specifically comprehension, early production, speech emergence, and intermediate fluency.

The Comprehension Stage. During this stage, learners begin to glean meaning from the input presented to them. Children begin to associate sound and meaning and make some sense of the way language relates to their environment. They need time to develop listening strategies and comprehension skills. Initially, children do not make much attempt to communicate using words; instead, they indicate comprehension nonverbally. In this stage, teachers must do everything possible to make a message comprehensible to children. For example, the teacher may draw a picture of a body, describing each step along the way: "Let's draw a body. What do I need? Do I need a head? OK, let's draw a head. Now, do I need some hair? Yes, let's draw some hair," and so forth.

During this stage, learning activities do not require children to speak, although some children may naturally do so. This stage is particularly important in the PREP program because children's success in school depends more on comprehension skills than production skills. Children need time to acquire enough passive vocabulary to understand what is going on in the classroom. Total Physical Response (TPR) (Asher, 1982) is especially useful in improving comprehension strategies and teaching new vocabulary. Asher maintains that children learn their first language by following the commands of the parents. TPR assumes that language is most easily acquired if coupled with body movement or appropriate actions.

Children acquire language through performing tasks that require them to do something or make something. By focusing attention on the activity, they concentrate on what they are doing rather than on the language; performing actions gives meaning to the language. Vocabulary becomes comprehensible through gestures, actions, and pictures.

Early Production Stage. In this stage, students naturally begin to produce a limited number of words they have heard and understood many times. It is important to continue providing listening activities, but opportunities must also be provided for the children to respond to the teacher. The following four types of questions encourage single-word responses:

1. Yes/no : *Is this the head?*
2. Choice: *Is this the head or the nose?*
3. Completion: *This is a small, red ______.*
4. Questions with single-word answers: *What is this?*

These types of questions are easy to use with pictures. For example,"Look at the picture. What do you see? *(man).* Yes, good, that's a man. Is he young or old? *(old).* Yes, he's old. What's he doing? *(gardening).* Good, he's gardening. Do you like gardening?" and so on.

Speech Emergence. In this stage, students spontaneously begin to produce word combinations. Language Experience activities provide a good basis for the emergence of speech. The activity must be sufficiently meaningful and interesting to engage the students' attention and generate oral language. In this stage, students should be given opportunities to produce simple sentences. For example, they can be asked questions that require simple comparisons, descriptions, and sequencing of events. Instead of correcting errors explicitly, teachers can model language by expanding simple utterances:

Teacher	**Student**	**Teacher**
What is the monkey doing now?	*(He play)*	Yes, he's playing.
What is Danh doing to the monkey ?	*(Danh pet)*	Yes, he's petting the monkey.
Does the monkey like it? Why?	*(Feel good)*	Yes, the monkey likes it because it feels good.

In the early stages of second language development, especially in a class where the majority of children speak the same language, much of the chatter may be in the children's native language. Rather than trying to prevent children from using their native language, teachers should use the concrete actions involved in the activity to help the children associate their spontaneous utterances in the native language with their equivalents in English.

Intermediate Fluency Stage. This stage concentrates on the development of speech. Because language fluency develops better when students have a need to express themselves, activities in the content areas provide good opportunities for language interaction and expanding their vocabulary. This is also the stage in which the most time should be devoted to literacy development.

Literacy Development: Whole Language Approaches

Nontraditional methods such as the Whole Language Approach were chosen for literacy development to take into account the learner's total language needs (Goodman, 1986). In this approach, the focus of instruction is on meaning, and learning activities revolve around specific content in a real communicative situation.

The PREP program uses three methods that promote reading, beginning with shared reading with big books, Language Experience activities, and sustained silent reading. Although these methods can be used simultaneously to teach reading, most often they are used in sequence.

Shared Reading with Big Books simulates the experience of bedtime-story reading. Through high-interest stories written in enlarged print specifically for children, every child in the classroom can share in the process of hearing and seeing a story unfold. Reading good children's literature is the center of this instructional program. Children participate in any way they like: as listeners, choral readers, or individual readers.

This approach is particularly useful for children from nonliterate backgrounds who have not been introduced to literacy in the natural, enjoyable way that most children in a literate society have. Shared reading relies on children's natural search for meaning. By the very nature of the situation, an adult reading a story to a child is a shared experience that invites participation by children. When listening to a favorite story that is read often, children will usually join in the reading in any way that is comfortable to them. They may at first mumble along with the teacher; eventually their mumbles will turn into recognizable words. They may echo-read, repeating parts of the story as it is being read. As children become more fluent, they become "expert readers," and play the role of the teacher.

The Language Experience Approach. One of the best ways to help students make the transition from their oral language to standard printed English is to use the

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Language Experience Approach (LEA). LEA is based on the notion that children are better able to read materials that (a) stem from their own experiences and (b) are based on their own oral language. A large portion of LEA involves eliciting oral language from children and shaping it in preparation for its use as written material.

LEA involves whole language by allowing children to read stories rather than isolated words or sentences. Reading material is natural in that the only vocabulary controls in the material stem from the limitations of the child's speaking vocabulary. Since children are given reading material that they themselves compose orally, success in reading is ensured. This approach also ensures that the interrelationship of oral and written language is clear and natural.

Sustained Silent Reading. In this phase, everyone in class—including the teacher—chooses a book and reads silently at his or her own pace. This experience provides an opportunity for children to see reading and writing as something to be enjoyed rather than something that causes stress, anxiety, and possibly even embarrassment. Allotting school time for children to simply read whatever they want to, and for no other reason than enjoyment, is especially important for children who do not live in a highly literate home environment and thus do little, if any, reading for pleasure at home.

The PREP program uses three methods of developing writing skills in ESL that are based on the whole language approach: dictated stories, dialogue journal writing, and creative writing.

Dictated Stories. In the early stages of second language development, when the children are at the preproduction stage, group writing activities are most appropriate. Dictated stories serve to introduce to children the experience of composing a piece of writing. After completing an oral language activity, children prepare to compose a group story by recounting the sequence of steps in the activity and reviewing the vocabulary to be included in the story. The children then dictate a story about the activity to the teacher. Using large, lined newsprint, the teacher takes down the dictation from the students. For children who are very limited in English proficiency, the teacher may need to slightly modify the utterances.

Dialogue Journal Writing. Children take 5-10 minutes a day to write regularly to the teacher in a bound notebook about a topic of their choice, and the teacher writes back as an active participant in a written conversation that continues throughout the school year. This ongoing, daily writing is on topics that children themselves choose to write about at their level of language proficiency, however minimal (Kreeft, Shuy, Staton, Reed, & Morroy, 1984).

Dialogue journal writing helps create a strong emotional bond between teacher and child. The interaction is nonthreatening because its focus is on communication rather than form. The teacher and the child write as participants in a conversation, communicating a genuine message. While the teacher does not evaluate the student's language, the teacher's writing serves as a language model for the child within the context of their messages (Staton, Kreeft, & Gutstein, 1985).

Dialogue journals are a practical instance of reading and writing bound together in a single functional experience. The language input the child receives from the teacher's entry is slightly beyond the student's language ability. As children read the teacher's guided response to their own journal entries, they gradually adjust their writing by providing more information about their own experiences, and thus their language improves. Journal entries by students may start with single words or pairs of words, but work with dialogue journals in many school districts indicates that their entries will expand significantly by the end of the school year. As in LEA stories, students' printed words become meaningful and personal, and comprehension is generally ensured.

Creative Writing. The use of creative writing as a teaching tool is based on two premises: (a) The essence of writing is to communicate ideas and feelings; and (b) Children have a natural urge to express their thoughts and feelings creatively in "writing." In this approach, children are given the opportunity to write about anything they feel like writing about. They are encouraged to produce "written" language, and, through teachers' feedback, are led to organize their thoughts better and eventually to follow the conventional rules of writing. Grammar and spelling are explicitly taught only after children experience the thrill of uninhibitedly expressing themselves in writing. Children taught in this way take pride in their work and in themselves.

By using this approach, children's writing initially takes the form of drawing, which may be combined with squiggles representing verbal language. If children are exposed to enough written language—in the form of LEA stories or children's literature—and if the teacher gives the appropriate feedback, their mock writing will gradually be transformed into acceptable forms of writing. In the process, children will follow their own unconventional rules of writing. They will also use invented spelling: TNK U FOR THE EARGS I JUS LUV THOS EARGS (Thank you for the earrings, I just love those earrings).

As in the case of oral language, children need to receive feedback focused on the content and meaning of the message rather than on its form. Feedback can be given to children by means of "conferences," in which the teacher reacts to a child's writing individually and comments orally on the piece that the child has produced. Conferences are of two types: content and process. In a content conference, the teacher comments on the ideas—the what—and in a process conference, the teacher comments on the way in which the piece is written—the how.

As with any writer, the child needs to share his or her product with others. Thus, an important component of the creative writing approach is the "publishing" of children's work. A book or a story written by the child may be photocopied, exhibited in an author's corner, or exchanged with another class.

The Promise of PREP

The PREP program marks a significant and exciting development in refugee training for young children. Findings from current research and new methodologies have been incorporated into the program design. As a result, the PREP staff hopes to contribute to, as well as profit from, the body of knowledge about second language acquisition and literacy, particularly with respect to this unique group not yet immersed in the target culture and language.

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STAGES OF LANGUAGE DEVELOPMENT

AREA	PROPOSED STAGES	AUTHOR (S)	REFERENCE
Oral Language (L2)	Stages I Preproduction (Prespeech) II Early Production III Speech Emergence IV Intermediate Fluency	Stephen D. Krashen Tracy D. Terrell	The Natural Approach : Language Acquisition in the Classroom. The Alemany Press, 1983
Reading Writing (L2)	Stage I Level 0 Non-use I Orientation (awareness) Stage II II Preparation (Investigation) III Mechnical Use Stage III IV-a Routine Use IV-b Refinement Stage IV V Integration VI Renewal	Carol N. Dixon & Denise Nessel	Language Experience Approach to Reading (and Writing) The Alemany Press, 1983
Reading (L1)	Stage 1 Emergent Reading 2 Advanced Emergent Reading 3 Emergent to Early Reading 4 Early Reading 5 Advanced Early Reading	Don Holdaway	The Foundations of Literacy. Ashton/ Scholastic, 1979
Spelling (L1)	1 Pre-communicative Stage 2 Semiphonetic Stage 3 Phonetic Stage 4 Transitional Stage 5 Correct Stage	Richard Gentry	"An Analysis of Developmental Spelling in GNYS AT WRK", The Reading Teacher. Vol 36, PP. 191-192, 1982

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ECOLOGICAL ASSESSMENT: IMPLICATIONS FOR TEACHERS OF LEARNING DISABLED STUDENTS

Timothy E. Heron and William L. Heward

Abstract. **Results obtained from normative or criterion-referenced assessments are sufficient to determine the starting point for most students' academic or social instruction. However, some students' learning/behavior difficulties are subtle and complex and, thus, necessitate a more global assessment to ensure the most appropriate instructional approach. This paper discusses the rationale for conducting an ecological assessment, a model for conceptualizing ecological assessment data, factors affecting student performance, sources of ecological assessment data, and implications of such data for the teacher of learning disabled students.**

Use of the word "ecology" is no longer restricted to such areas as urban planning, wildlife conservation, and land and resource management. An ecological perspective has now also entered educational practices for exceptional students. There has been an increased interest in assessing and analyzing not only the responses of the learner, but also the various ecologies, physical and psychological, in which the learner functions. Ecological assessment, as used in this paper, encompasses two perspectives. First, the learning disabled student is seen as possessing a "behavioral ecology" to the extent that changes in one behavior may affect other behaviors. Second, behavior is viewed within an environmental context whereby changes in one environmental condition (i.e., contingency) may produce changes in other conditions which, in turn, affect the performance of the individual (Rogers-Warren & Warren, 1977). More succinctly, ecological assessment refers to the analysis of an individual's learning environment and his/her interactions within and across these settings (Wallace & Larsen, 1978). Regardless of the source of assessment data (i.e., the student, the environment, or the interaction) the student's observable behaviors are the ultimate subjects of assessment and analysis (Baer, 1974).

The purpose of this paper is to: 1) present a basis for ecological assessment of learning disabled students; 2) outline ecological factors affecting learning disabled students' performance; 3) describe sources of ecological data; and 4) discuss the implications of ecological assessment and intervention for the teacher of learning disabled (LD) students.

RATIONALE FOR CONDUCTING ECOLOGICAL ASSESSMENTS OF LD STUDENTS

Special educators generally agree that the cornerstone of sound diagnostic-prescriptive teaching is gathering and interpreting reliable and valid assessment data. Without this initial step, a functional teaching plan is unlikely to follow. Ecological assessment data can be used to 1) determine present levels of student achievement, 2) provide the teacher and/or parent with a reasonable starting point for intervention, and

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3) serve as a standard by which to measure educational progress.

Assessment of learning disabled students' performance, however, should not be restricted to a search for student variables which may account for behavior, but must, in some cases, be extended to situational variables which contribute to the initiation and maintenance of a behavior. In short, to obtain a more representative measure of student performance, it may be necessary to assess both the student and his/her environment because they interact with each other. Given the varied ecologies in which the LD student functions, "appropriate and effective intervention cannot occur without an adequate understanding of the child and his or her environments" (Hardin, 1978, p. 15).

Most educators who work with LD students agree that such students' performance can vary a great deal within the day and across academic subject areas. For example, resource room teachers commonly evaluate an LD student's performance in their class as acceptable—maybe even exemplary—while the regular education teacher in whose class the student is mainstreamed may consider the same student's performance later in the day completely different.

Even though ecological assessment may provide a rich, descriptive data base of an LD student's performance, teachers must weigh the costs and benefits of using such an assessment procedure. Teachers may not need to conduct a full-scale ecological assessment to set the stage for functional teaching. If direct measurement of student academic and social performance using normative or criterion-referenced instruments provides the LD teacher with a reasonable starting point for instruction, ecological assessment should be forestalled. On the other hand, some students' problems are so complex that only an ecological assessment enables the teacher to pinpoint and ultimately resolve these problems.

A MODEL OF ECOLOGICAL ASSESSMENT

A model of ecological assessment should take into account several factors related to the student and the environments in which the student operates. According to Carroll (1974) an ecological model consists of six steps: 1) delineation of the assessment goals (i.e., identify the data to be collected and how they will be used); 2) formation of a conceptual framework within which to assess the learner and the environment (i.e., identify the relative importance of learner and environmental factors); 3) implementation of the assessment plan (i.e., conduct direct observations, inspect work samples or products); 4) evaluation of assessment results; 5) development of a set of hypotheses (i.e., relationships between student behavior and identified learner characteristics and environmental factors); and 6) development of a learning plan (i.e., an intervention strategy designed to match learner characteristics with appropriate environmental settings).

Wallace and Larsen (1978) cautioned that while any ecological assessment model may be useful for conceptualizing the process, teachers and other field-based personnel must recognize that specific techniques must be developed to collect reliable and valid assessment data for both environmentally based and student-based factors.

ECOLOGICAL FACTORS AFFECTING LD STUDENTS' PERFORMANCE

Many variables may influence an LD student's performance including physiological factors, physical aspects of the environment, student-student interaction, teacher-student interaction, home environment, and the student's reinforcement history. A complete ecological assessment takes into account each of these areas to determine how they might interrelate to affect the student's performance.

Physiological Factors

As part of an ecological assessment the teacher must consider physiological disabilities or medical deficiencies within the student that might account for his/her performance. In addition to conditions which are commonly recognized as producing an educational handicap (e.g., hearing or vision impairment), the increased use of pharmaceutical interventions for learning and behavior-disordered students means that teachers must be aware of the effect(s) of any medications students take regularly. It is not unusual for a learning disabled student's behavior to change dramatically as his/her medication wears off, or if the daily dosage is changed.

Additionally, some LD students suffer from recurring colds or other respiratory problems which may affect their ability to attend to directions, complete academic tasks, or function appropriately within the classroom. Also, allergies can produce irritating and uncomfortable secondary effects (e.g., rashes) which, in turn, may affect the student's ability to participate appropriately within the class.

Physical Aspects of the Environment

The classroom is a complex environment consisting of many stimuli. The extent to which the physical aspects of the classroom interact with other variables to affect student performance is not fully understood. However, spatial density, seating arrangement, lighting, and noise level appear to be related to student performance to such a degree that their inclusion in an ecological assessment is warranted.

Spatial density. Spatial density refers to the amount of space an individual has per unit of area. A study conducted by Krantz and Risley (cited in O'Leary & O'Leary, 1977) indicated that spatial density in classrooms can affect student performance. Specifically, student on-task performance during a teacher demonstration and story was greater under uncrowded conditions than during crowded conditions. However, when praise and classroom privileges were introduced, student on-task performance increased even under crowded conditions. The study demonstrated that a simple adjustment in the amount of space per student could be as effective as implementation of a contingency management plan for increasing student on-task behavior.

Seating arrangement. The location of a student's seat during various classroom activities can affect performance in those activities. Steinzor (1950) showed that conversation tends to flow across a table rather than around it. Therefore, a teacher who wishes to increase an LD student's verbal production would be advised to place a highly verbal student across from, rather than next to, the LD student.

Axelrod, Hall, and Tams (1972) showed that student kicking and off-task behavior can be reduced if students are switched from a "cluster" arrangement of chairs where they sit face to face to a "rows" arrangement placing them back to back. Likewise, as can be inferred from Adams and Biddle's (1970) study, students who sit along the sides or in the back of the room are likely to receive more teacher attention if their seats are moved to the front or center aisle of the classroom.

Classroom lighting. The amount of available light can affect the LD student's performance on various tasks. Students need enough light in a classroom to be able to see without straining their eyes. Results from one study, although by no means conclusive, suggest that the *kind* of classroom light can also be important. Mayron, Ott, Nations, and Mayron (1974) compared full-spectrum fluorescent lighting equipped with radiation shields to standard cool-white fluorescent light in four windowless first-grade classrooms. Results indicated that the first graders exposed to the full-spectrum lighting with radiation shields were less hyperactive and showed improved achievement scores compared to their counterparts exposed to the cool-white fluorescent lights.

Noise. While the data on the effects of noise within the classroom are tentative, one study (Bronzaft & McCarthy, 1975) indicated that reading performance may be affected by environmental distractions. It is not clear, however, whether unwanted noise affects student performance directly, or whether it affects performance indirectly by reducing teaching time.

Student-Student Interaction

Numerous authors have indicated that student-student interaction or peer group dynamics is an essential component of ecological analysis (Wallace & Larsen, 1978; Hardin, 1978). The more precise the description of how the student "fits" within the social structure of the classroom, the more effective the intervention—if needed.

In cases where LD students are integrated into regular classrooms, teachers would be advised to consider ecological assessment because of the complex interactions present in mainstreamed classrooms. Research data indicate that handicapped students, in general, are less accepted (Iano, Ayers, Heller, McGettigan, & Walker, 1974) and more rejected by their nonhandicapped peers (Bryan, 1974). On the other hand, Kitano, Stiehl, and Cole (1978) suggested that nonhandicapped children lack a sense of awareness of handicapping conditions and are unable to ascertain the unique needs and problems of handicapped individuals.

An understanding of the powerful role that student-student interaction plays in the classroom emphasizes the need to conduct an ecological assessment. For example, a teacher attempting to modify the inappropriate verbal behavior of a mainstreamed learning disabled student must consider that verbal behavior in relation to the student's peer group. It would be ineffective to reduce the LD student's inappropriate comments without addressing the conditions which produced them (e.g., peer rejection or lack of sensitivity) (cf. Heron, 1978).

Teacher-Student Interaction

An ecological assessment of the special education teacher's classroom behavior should proceed from the basic question: What does the teacher control in the classroom? When this question is carefully considered, the answer must almost certainly include the statement: The teacher controls opportunity to respond and provide feedback. Restated in behavioral terms, the teacher controls antecedent stimuli and consequences. For example, the teacher determines how many math problems students are going to be issued, how long a given activity will last, how long to wait for a student's verbal response to a question, what questions to ask, etc. Likewise, the teacher controls whether praise, points, free time, or a host of other reinforcers (or punishers) will be used as consequences for various behaviors. Clearly, a teacher's interaction "style" is an important part of the classroom ecology.

Several studies have shown that teachers act differentially toward the students in their classrooms (Brophy & Good, 1974; Jackson, 1968). Bryan (1978), for example, noted that LD students and their nonhandicapped peers spent identical amounts of time interacting with the teacher, yet, despite receiving equal amounts of reinforcement, the LDs received twice as much criticism from teachers. Chapman, Larsen, and Parker (1979) extended previous findings by showing that the LD students in their study received more teacher criticisms and warnings across work-related, procedural, and behavioral contacts than did their normal counterparts. The authors speculated that regular classroom teachers may be unprepared to manage the total behavior of the learning disabled student. Bryan, Wheeler, Felcan, and Henek (1976) found that response opportunities varied across educational settings. Specifically, LD students had fewer response opportunities in the regular classrooms (and presumably reduced chances for reinforcement) than they did in special education classrooms.

Many veteran special education teachers concur that student performance varies from morning to afternoon. Where possible, teachers attempt to plan "heavy" academic subjects during the morning hours when students are more apt to be fresh and alert. There are, however, more subtle factors to consider. For example, Krantz and Risley (cited in O'Leary & O'Leary, 1977) demonstrated that the classroom activity sequence, that is, the order of active and inactive sessions, has a great influence on student attending and social behavior.

Finally, teachers must recognize the effect of their teaching style on learning disabled students' performance and be aware of the potential for differential interaction across students and time.

Home Environment

The birth of a new brother or sister, the death of a relative, or the sudden illness of a parent are events which may occur in the home and can alter the behavior of LD students in school. For the most part, the effect of such events is transitory, and the student returns to a more or less normal state in a short time. Other events that occur in the home have a more lasting impact on an LD student's school behavior. The death of one or both parents, the dissolution of a marriage, the occurrence of child abuse and neglect in the home, the presence of chronic alcoholism or drug addiction, and extreme sibling rivalry are events which can have a significant and long-term effect on the LD student's ability to perform in the classroom. While there are many ethical considerations to overcome when conducting an ecological assessment of the home (Hardin, 1978), the data that can be obtained are valuable in programming appropriate interventions across all the student's ecologies.

Of course, ecological assessment of the home environment should not be restricted to crisis situations. Teachers can obtain useful information on students' abilities and interests by including the home environment in the assessment. Data obtained in this fashion could be used to initiate new reinforcement programs or different instructional activities. Conversely, Kroth, Whelan, and Stables (1970) found that parents were able to incorporate the teacher's instructions in a home-based education program which increased the student's in-school academic performance. Other researchers (e.g., Hawkins & Sluyter, 1970; Heron & Axelrod, 1976) have shown that parents are capable and willing to serve as adjunct educators in the home.

Reinforcement History

A student's performance in home and school environments is determined to a great extent by his/her previous reinforcement history (Stephens, 1977). When past reinforcement levels have been inadequate, and when a newly established behavior must be maintained across ecologies (e.g., resource room, regular classroom, and the home), an ecological assessment might facilitate a coordinated intervention. Also, the ecological assessment might reveal the conditions under which the student received differential reinforcement in the past. If these conditions can be identified, they can be incorporated into future programming.

SOURCES OF ECOLOGICAL ASSESSMENT DATA

While the factors that can influence an LD student's academic and social performance are almost unlimited, the teacher's search for such factors can be confined to the following four major sources: student records, interviews, teacher-administered tests, and direct and daily observation.

Student Records

A student's school records are often a source of useful information. In addition to notes and dates demarking the major milestones of the student's school career, such records typically include scores attained by the student on achievement tests, intelligence tests, or any other standardized assessment instrument. Records typically also include the student's health and medical history as it pertains to school performance (e.g., allergy reactions, seizures). Further anecdotal records may serve as a means of evaluating the LD student's previous reinforcement history (i.e., those objects or events which, when applied subsequent to a behavior, strengthened it). In some instances, anecdotal observations by previous teachers, the school psychologist, or other personnel may be useful for understanding the student's special needs.

Special precautions must be taken when attempting to incorporate information from a student's school records into an ecological assessment, particularly when such information consists of anecdotal notations. First, the information may be several years old. Second, when using written records a teacher is relying not only upon another person's ability to observe and analyze the student's behaviors objectively, but also his/her ability to record those observations in a manner that allows accurate interpretation. A teacher who reads that Johnny "often gets upset when things don't go his way" is left without much useful diagnostic information because the statement can be interpreted in many ways. Further, some interpretations of statements can be so divergent that they might indicate radically different interventions.

A final precaution regarding school records concerns expectations. While anecdotal information can be very useful, the LD teacher must strive not to let statements like "he can't learn math" serve as a built-in rationale for not teaching math. Such anecdotal statements might shade the teacher's expectations to the extent that little time is devoted to math instruction for the particular student. As a result, the student gets less help and falls even further behind.

In spite of the precautions one must take when attempting to incorporate school records into an overall ecological assessment profile, such records must not be overlooked. While a test score or anecdotal record might not identify a specific factor causing a student's learning problem, such material may serve to signal that a given area deserves more intensive, direct assessment.

Interviews

Interviewing an LD student's previous teachers and other school personnel who have worked directly with the child can provide useful information for ecological assessment. While anecdotal notes in a student's school folder are at best second hand, often vague, and usually incomplete, talking with the original source enables the student's present teacher to try out possible interpretations and find out the exact meaning of the anecdotal records. Many important items that were omitted in the original entry may also surface in a face-to-face interview. Given this information, a teacher may save valuable time and may avoid creating additional problems. For instance, the intervention that seemed appropriate based upon the current teacher's direct assessment proves an obvious wrong choice, but without the additional information provided by interviewing the past teacher, this relevant information would not have been uncovered.

The LD student's parents also present a major source of information, and any assessment attempting to be "ecological" must encompass the home environment. Parents can provide information about their child's behavior or routine at home which may affect school performance. For example, a change in the student's medication or dosage may affect his/her ability to stay on task and complete assignments in school. Such information can be invaluable to the teacher's programming efforts. In most cases, access to this information depends upon the teacher's skills in communicating with parents.

A detailed discussion of how to conduct parent interviews can be found in Stephens (1977). One key technique related directly to gathering specific ecological assessment data is to ask a series of questions aimed at finding out what parents mean by stating that their child "misbehaves." Heward, Dardig, and Rossett (1979) provide examples of this structured interviewing technique designed to increase parents' use of more specific terms to describe their child's actions:

> *During what time of day does Elizabeth seem most "uncooperative?" What does she do then?*
>
> *Are there any parts of the house or certain situations where Jimmy "acts like a baby?" If so, where, and what does he do?*
>
> *How many different ways does Phillip "act afraid?" Let's make a list of what he does when he's afraid.*
>
> *What's the most frequent "withdrawn" thing Susan does?*

The same type of questioning should be used to determine the parents' behaviors toward the child. This interview technique may also be used with teachers and other professionals when they use such terms as "distractible," "lazy," or "slow."

The family physician is another key source of ecological assessment data for the LD student whose treatment includes regular medication. Teachers must know how the prescribed medications might affect the student during the school day, how the child may look or behave if a dosage has not been taken, and any potential side-effects of the medication. Based on this information, the LD teacher will be in a better position to note changes in the student's performance that might warrant modification of the child's medication program. These kinds of ecological assessment data are very important as changes in dosage or type of medication can have tremendous effects on the student's ability to respond to certain programs that need to be implemented to meet the student's IEP objectives.

Finally, the LD student must not be forgotten. In the search for all pertinent information, it is easy to overlook the student himself/herself. Whenever possible, the student should be interviewed and included in discussions of programming plans. More and more educators are becoming convinced that informing students of what is going on in the classroom, and why, is essential. Some of the most exciting behavior change research in recent years has been in the area of self-control and self-management, where students design, implement, and evaluate their own programs (see Lovitt, 1977; O'Leary & O'Leary, 1977).

Two key factors work to determine the usefulness of the assessment information obtained from interviews, i.e., the LD teacher's skill in conducting the student interview and the teacher's bias. As teachers improve their interviewing skills, they also become more adept at perceiving bias and consequently at weighing student responses.

Teacher-Administered Tests

Testing students to determine academic growth or potential is a well accepted practice. Generally speaking, there are two major test categories: formal (norm-referenced tests) and informal (criterion referenced) teacher-made tests. Both types of tests can be used to assess a variety of academic and social behaviors. An ecological assessment would not be complete without the inclusion of data from one or both of these sources.

Formal tests. Standardized achievement or diagnostic tests can be distinguished from informal tests in at least two ways. First, the directions for administering the test, the time frame in which the test is to be administered, and the scoring procedure are specified in the test manual. The examiner is expected to follow the instructions, lest the test be invalidated. Second, tables are usually included in the testing manual so that an individual's score(s) can be compared to a norm or comparison group.

Wallace and Larsen (1978) listed four limitations of formal tests. These included: overgeneralization or misinterpretation of findings; lack of specific information for teachers regarding behaviors to be learned; low or nonexistent reliability data; and variation in performance which occurs as a function of the examiner or the student.

Informal tests. Informal or criterion-referenced tests are designed to give the LD teacher information about specific student strengths and weaknesses. Such tests are usually administered in the classroom by the teacher, and items included are directly related to the area(s) of instruction (Lovitt, 1977).

Two advantages of informal tests compared to norm-referenced assessments are: a) student growth can be measured regularly with respect to prior achievement levels; and b) teachers can modify the time, location, or construction of the test to meet the unique needs of the student.

Direct and Daily Observation

No other source of assessment data can provide the breadth of information inherent in direct and daily observation. The teacher can use a number of direct observation techniques to record student and teacher behavior as well as situational factors affecting student performance.

Permanent products. Written assignments, quizzes, tests, and video and audio tapes of student responses are considered permanent products. Teachers can usually index the LD student's performance using these measures across various dimensions (e.g., rate correct, types of errors committed, response topography). Further, video and audio tapes can serve as excellent means of assessing teacher-student and student-student interactions. By reviewing a recorded tape, a teacher can determine the number of teacher-student interactions, the conditions under which the interactions occurred, and the effect of the interactions.

Adequate reliability of permanent-product measures can be ensured by having a second person independently score the data. Reliability scores are usually quite high for permanent-product measures.

Observational recording. Many classroom events do not result in permanent products (e.g., verbal responses, on-task performance, out-of-seat behavior). To record these behaviors (without the aid of audio or video taping) the LD teacher must use an observational technique which "samples" the behavior at particular time intervals. Teachers interested in assessing such factors as seating arrangement, level of classroom light, or spatial density within the room are advised to use observational recording techniques. By systematically changing a factor and noting its effect, a teacher becomes able to assess the relative importance of the factor to the LD student's performance.

The following three observational techniques are commonly employed during ecological assessment: interval sampling, time sampling, and duration recording (Cooper, 1974). When using interval sampling a teacher notes whether or not the target behavior occurred at *any* time during a specified interval (e.g., 5 seconds). A time sampling technique requires the teacher to record the occurrence or nonoccurrence of the target behavior at the *end* of the specified interval (e.g., 5 minutes), while duration recording requires the teacher to record the total amount of time the student engaged in the target behavior.

Checklists. Wallace and Larsen (1978) suggested that checklists and rating scales be used to summarize observational data. However, Stephens (1977) warned that checklists often include terms which are vague and subject to the recorder's interpretation. Whereas observational forms of data collection usually yield reliability indices exceeding 80%—a commonly accepted criterion—checklists and rating scales often do not provide acceptable levels of interobserver reliability.

High reliability scores for any type of observational system are obtained when the target behavior is clearly defined and agreed upon by observers who have received training in the observation procedures to be used and have had opportunity to practice with the observational code or checklist.

IMPLICATIONS OF ECOLOGICAL ASSESSMENT AND INTERVENTION FOR LD TEACHERS

Ecological assessment can provide LD teachers with functional data with which to plan and implement appropriate programs for their students. An ecological assessment can provide valuable information not only about the student's behavior, but also about the various settings in which the student performs (Carroll, 1974).

As stated previously, the key to using an ecological assessment is to know *when* to use it. Full-scale ecological assessments for their own sake are not recommendable for LD teachers charged with imparting a great number of important skills to many children in a limited amount of time. In most cases, the time and effort spent conducting an exhaustive ecological assessment would be better used in direct instruction. While the results of an ecological assessment might prove interesting, they do not always change the course of a planned intervention. Under what conditions then will an ecological assessment yield data that will significantly affect the course of treatment? Herein lies the challenge. Educators must strive to become keen discriminators of: 1) situations in which a planned intervention has the potential for affecting student behaviors other than the behavior of concern; and 2) situations in which an intervention, estimated to be effective if the target behavior is viewed in isolation, may be ineffective because other ecological variables come into play.

Regardless of the amount and range of information available about a student, the LD teacher must make instructional decisions based on an empirical analysis of the target behavior. Ultimately, this careful analysis (i.e., direct and daily measurement) of the behavior of interest will help identify those situations in which ecological assessment is warranted.

The analogy to a professional photographer who carries both a telephoto lens (direct assessment) and a wide-angle lens (ecological assessment) may be useful. In the hands of a skilled photographer both the wide-angle and the telephoto lens yield valuable information, albeit at different levels and for different purposes. With the wide-angle lens, a broader perspective on the photo's composition (e.g., background, setting, lighting) can be derived. However, some resolution is compromised. With the telephoto lens, the reverse occurs; detail is enhanced but the overall context of the photo may be lost or blurred. Teachers do not always need the wide-angle view, but on certain occasions ecological assessment becomes necessary.

While direct assessment approaches can provide the LD teacher with a sharper, more precise view of classroom behavior, it must be remembered that the ultimate resolution of some problems may require the teacher to focus on a broader ecological perspective.

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THE SUM & SUBSTANCE OF LEARNING STYLES

In the author's words —
It is caring and professional to respond to children's learning styles . . .
research evidences that they learn more and retain better when we do

By Dr. Rita Dunn

FOR LEVELS PRE-K THROUGH 12

Question:
Mary, Mary, Quite Contrary,
How can I help your mind grow?

Answer:
Teach me awhile through my own
learning style and I'll grasp
all the things I should know!

Experienced teachers don't have to be told that children are very different from each other; they *see* those differences every day of each week as they teach. Some youngsters sit quietly for long periods of time in rapt attention, while simultaneously, others squirm, daydream or talk with their classmates. Some kids are eager to go to school whereas others are fearful of leaving their parents. Some children remain "glued" to the teacher; some only want to interact with peers; some do well with—or without—both!

Most of us also recognize that youngsters in the same class seem to learn in different ways and through different approaches or materials. This is simply due to the fact that children have different biological and environmental backgrounds and these contribute to the development of each child's unique and individual learning style.

Learning style can determine whether or not young children *want* to come to school, or pay attention, or how long they'll pay attention; it directs *where* they should sit (or stand!), *with whom*, and the time of day (or night) they are most likely to learn. The way in which new information or skills should be introduced and reinforced for certain children can also be determined by learning style. We've seen that teaching through individual learning styles is more effective than teaching every child in the same way. Well-designed research verifies that students learn *more, more easily*, and *remember better* when the instructional methods or materials used match their learning style characteristics.

What *Is* Learning Style?

Regardless of age, IQ, race, sex or socioeconomic background, human beings tend to learn through their strengths and avoid their weaknesses. How we learn—our "style"—depends on our 1) environment 2) emotionality 3) sociological preference 4) biological

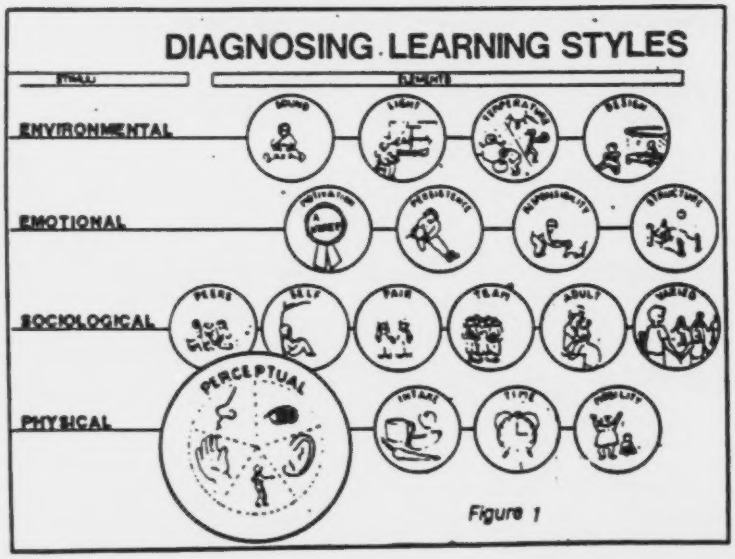

Figure 1

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traits and 5) psychological inclinations *See Figure 1*

The Environmental Elements
Students are either stimulated or inhibited by the location in which they are trying to learn and their reactions are determined by their biological makeup. Children can't change their hearing, sight, temperature or body sensitivities any more easily than they can alter the color of their eyes.

SOUND

Haven't You Noticed Children Who

- Say "Sssh!" when they are concentrating, and someone else whispers, shuffles, or makes noise?
- Take tests with one hand covering an ear?
- Didn't "hear" the question you asked just before you called on them?
- Ask you to repeat a question before they'll answer?
- Cover their ears whenever loud noises occur?

Some children cannot concentrate without absolute quiet, others block out sounds easily, others *need* sound such as radio or TV when trying to "think." The latter group may be sound-sensitive and may be using music to block out distracting environmental noises of which others may not even be aware.

One research study identified children who needed *extreme quiet* and those who needed *sound* to concentrate. Reading comprehension skills were taught to both groups, first in quiet and then in noisy conditions. In the quiet condition, the group that preferred quiet achieved statistically better scores than the group of children who needed sound to concentrate. Obviously, not everyone can learn in silence. Achievement was reversed under the noisy conditions in which the youngsters who preferred sound scored better than those who needed quiet.

LIGHT AND TEMPERATURE

Haven't You Noticed Children Who

- Are restless, fidgity or squirm—mostly on sunny days?
- Are listless, apathetic, or "sleepy"—mostly on dreary days, or in dimly lit sections of the room?
- Rub their eyes and turn their backs to a sunny window?
- Are cold when others are warm?
- Are warm when others are cold?
- Are oblivious to differences in weather or climate?

Individuals vary in their sensitivity to light and temperature because of the differences in their physical makeup. A longitudinal study of students in grades 3 through 12 showed that, generally speaking, the need for light increases with age. On the other hand, people react differently to identical temperatures because they literally have thinner or thicker skin and more or less natural insulation.

DESIGN

Haven't You Noticed Children Who

- Sit with one leg crossed under the other?
- Fidgit in "hard" chairs or are up and out of them often?
- Lie on floors or carpeting when reading?
- Sprawl all over their desks?

Some children and adults concentrate better in an informal design (floor, rug, lounge chair or bed) than they do in a formal one (classroom, library or kitchen setting). Youngsters shouldn't be required to sit for long periods of time if they learn better in other ways. If they learn, and do so without disturbing others, the *design* of the environment shouldn't make a difference to you. Just as you can't imagine learning someone else's way, that person would find it difficult to learn your way.

How to Respond to Environmental Preferences

There are ways to redesign a regular classroom to create areas where very little sound penetrates (for those who need quiet), and areas where youngsters may listen to music through earphones. Such interior decoration costs nothing, other than, perhaps, a can of fireproofing spray, and only takes about an hour to accomplish. Position chairs and pillows in areas that are both *close to* and *distant from* the windows—permit youngsters to sit where they feel most comfortable *as long as they are working quietly.*

The center of a room usually is warmer, areas near a window or heating unit may be warm or cool at various times. Encourage children to be *aware* of their temperature preferences and to dress accordingly.

The Emotional Elements

MOTIVATION, PERSISTENCE, RESPONSIBILITY AND STRUCTURE

Of Course You've Noticed Children Who:

- Don't seem to *want* to learn.
- Want to learn more than you're prepared to teach them.
- Want to learn about everything that's not covered by the regular curriculum.
- Complete assignments, but don't do them well.
- Begin assignments, but

Continued on page 80

THE SUM & SUBSTANCE OF LEARNING STYLES

Continued from page 31

rarely/never complete them.

- Complete assignments in greater depth than you ever intended.
- Complete assignments long before the others and then "don't know what to do" with their time.
- Don't do their work and don't seem to care.
- *Do* their work, but do it carelessly.
- Do their work, but constantly worry about how well it's been done.
- Can't begin a task without asking questions about it.
- Begin the task long before you've given the directions.
- Do things *exactly* the way they've been told to—especially when the directions given were incorrect.
- Do things their own way *despite* the directions you've given.
- Often ask permission to do things differently.
- Ask permission to do things differently, get the permission, and then do it exactly as was required originally.
- Couldn't *begin* a task if they had to do it their own way.
- Leave things for the last possible moment.
- Do things *immediately* and then can't wait for their grades.
- Are so organized that they know where everything is—including *your* things.
- Are so disorganized that they don't know where their own things are.

The emotional elements, as a whole, develop through children having positive or negative experiences at home, in their neighborhoods, or in school; more specifically, motivation and responsibility correlate with achievement. The better a youngster does in school, the more motivated and responsible he becomes. The reverse is true, too—underachieving students become less motivated and responsible as they proceed through the grades.

Persistence and responsibility are the only elements that appear to be related to IQ—the higher the IQ, the higher the child's level of persistence and responsibility. On the other hand, the more motivated a youngster becomes, the more responsibility he evidences.

One study of gifted youngsters revealed that many of these children—in contrast to average and highly achieving students—characterized themselves as being less responsible. Several years later, a prize-winning dissertation substantiated that what teachers believe are "responsibility" traits (children doing what they're told to do, following directions, completing assignments) are actually manifestations of conformity. There has been corroboration that seven or eight out of 10 gifted children are nonconforming, critical and sufficiently creative to want to do things their own way. Thus, the gifted students' perceived lack of "responsibility" was, in fact, a lack of conformity.

Some students need to be told exactly what to do, when it is due and how it should be completed. Other children require choices or options. If we impose too much structure on creative youngsters, we inhibit their originality. If we permit options for children who cannot handle them, they become frustrated.

How to Respond to Emotional Elements

Motivation changes from year to year, class to class and teacher to teacher. If youngsters are unmotivated, try to teach them basic skills through high-interest units. Since interests also vary among different age, sex and ability groups, it's important to learn what really "turns on" unmotivated youngsters and then teach them to read, spell, write and express themselves through their real concerns.

Assign only a few objectives at a time to the less persistent and less responsible students (they can learn what everyone else does, but should not be overwhelmed by too much to do in a brief period). Such youngsters need encouragement, frequent feedback and constant supervision *as they are working;* often they require specific, detailed direction, too.

You can let motivated, persistent and responsible students learn at their own pace, provided that pace is faster than you'd expect of the "average" learner. Provide short, multiple-part tasks of high interest for *all,* but *particularly* for the unmotivated, impersistent or less responsible students. Encourage the latter group to complete each set of tasks as well as possible; supervise them and provide immediate feedback as they are working. Give those who require structure specific directions and then permit some choices for those who provide their own structure.

The Sociological Elements

SELF, PAIR, TEAM, ADULT AND VARIED ORIENTATIONS

Haven't You Noticed Children Who:

- Don't have the independence, skill, or confidence to work alone?
- No matter how much you entice them into interacting with others, usually *want* to work alone?
- *Only* want to work, play or be with other children?
- Shy away from children and seem to prefer adults?
- Shy away from adults, but prefer other children?
- Shy away from both adults and children, but enjoy working with media?
- "Turn off" from media?
- "Turn off" from people?
- "Turn off" from work?
- "Turn off" from learning *without* people?
- Work in every possible combination: by themselves, with children, with adults and with media?

Assigning children to work with others can be extremely inappropriate in some cases and the best possible strategy to use with other kids. Knowing *with whom* a student can learn is extremely important knowledge in learning styles' based instruction.

How to Respond to Sociological Elements

First, test for learning style (see Janet Perrin's article titled "Who's Learning How?" in this same section) and permit the student who learns best alone to work independently if able to do so; permit pairs of children who enjoy working together to do so if they can achieve well; use small-group strategies such as Team Learning, Circle of Knowledge, Brainstorming and Case Studies for the peer-oriented youngsters; either work directly with, or supervise often, the kids who need *you* (adult-oriented); vary strategies and/or use a variety of media for the children who work well in several ways.

The Physical Elements

PERCEPTUAL STRENGTHS

Haven't You Noticed Children Who

- "Know" a great deal *without* formal instruction?
- Know more than most others of the same age level?
- Learn what they're taught, but can't apply or use it?
- Read words and paragraphs, but don't understand much of their meaning?
- Enjoy learning, but don't retain much of what they are exposed to?
- "Listen" in class, but don't remember what they "hear"?
- Write spelling words five or more times each, but can't learn them?
- "Really try" in class, but don't learn?
- Can't sit, can't listen, can't concentrate and can't remember—no matter how hard we try to "win" them?

People learn through different perceptual strengths. Some remember much of what they hear, others recall the things they see, many must write or use their fingers in some way to help them remember, other people cannot internalize information or skills unless they use them in real activities.

Most of us explain much of what we want our students to learn by *talking*, but do most children learn by *listening*? The fact is, only 20-30 percent of the school age population remembers about three-quarters of what they hear in a 40-45 minute lecture. Based on that fact, teachers are hardly using the most effective instructional method to help children learn.

About 40 percent of the kids remember 75 percent of what they *see*. Another substantial group—perhaps 20 percent—need to *write* the new material or *feel* it (by touching sandpaper letters, using finger paints or writing in chocolate pudding). These activities constitute *tactual* learning. As I mentioned previously, some students only grasp the knowledge and skills they actually *use* (measuring in baking or building, spelling through writing letters).

How to Respond to Perceptual Strengths

Marie Antonetti Carbo's research was awarded the Association for Supervision and Curriculum Development's (ASCD) prize for the best doctoral dissertation of 1980 ("An Analysis of the Relationships Between the Modality Preferences of Kindergartners and Selected Reading Treatments as They Affect the Learning of a Basic Sight-Word Vocabulary"). Marie Carbo found that kindergartners learned more words most easily, and retained them longest, when they were introduced to the words through their *strongest* perceptual strength. Thus, auditory children taught through a phonics approach, visual children taught through a word-recognition approach and tactual/kinesthetic children taught through a T/K approach, achieved better scores when taught using complementary reading methods.

Roberta Wheeler taught learning disabled second-graders to read by not only introducing new words through each youngster's strongest perceptual strength, but by *reinforcing* through his *second* strongest sense (reported on in the article, "An Alternative to Failure: Teaching Reading According to Students' Perceptual Strengths," *Kappa Delta Pi Record*, December, '80). In effect, Ms. Wheeler used a multisensory approach, but a *directed* one (children were introduced to words through their strongest sense and then reinforced through their second and then tertiary sense).

We can apply this discovery to increase our own teaching effectiveness. Every time we lecture or discuss a topic with the children, we should write the important words on the chalkboard or display them using the overhead projector—in this way we'll reach, minimally, the two out of 10 children who remember what they hear, and the four out of 10 who remember what they see.

Encourage tactual learners to take notes, draw pictures or manipulate instructional materials such as Task Cards, Electroboards or Learning Circles. And, as much as possible, in order to facilitate retention, have children *use* whatever information you've taught them.

INTAKE, TIME OF DAY ENERGY LEVELS AND MOBILITY NEEDS

Haven't You Noticed Children Who

- Nibble all day long, particularly when they are concentrating?
- Never seem hungry and yet have inexhaustible energy?
- *Can't* eat when they're worried?
- *Must* eat when they're worried?
- Come to school in the morning with cyclonic energy?
- Drag themselves into school as if they were still sleeping?
- Just can't make it into school?
- Sleep half the day and "come alive" after lunch?
- Have energy depressions right after lunch?
- First "wake up" when school is over?
- Are wide-awake late at night?
- Fall asleep right after dinner each night?
- Can sit for hours completely absorbed in preferred activities?
- *Can't* sit still for five minutes without hopping up and down?
- Have either long, short or *no* attention spans *depending on what they are doing*?

The need for intake, energy levels and whether or not, or the degree to which mobility is needed, is a *physical* phenomena that is often affected by a person's psychological makeup and environmental situation. We often think that children can't learn unless they are focusing directly on us; some children concentrate better—and therefore learn more easily—when they can nibble while studying or at different times of the day, or when they have frequent "breaks" and then return to a task. There is no standard time span during which children will remain with an assignment—such intervals are as diverse among children as they are among teachers!

How to Respond to Intake, Time of Day and Mobility Needs

Permit youngsters to nibble on raw vegetables while they are engaged in working alone or in small groups; record your lessons on a tape so a child who is unable to concentrate at the time of day during which you are teaching, may listen to the cassette later. Develop materials that can be completed or studied at home such as Programmed Learning Sequences, Learning Circles, Task Cards or Multisensory Instructional Packages. Develop a few instructional areas such as Learning Stations, Interest Centers, Media Corners or Little Theaters (these materials and approaches are explained in the book, *Teaching Students Through Their Individual Learning Styles*, Reston Publishing, Reston, Va.). Then, build individual programs for students around these areas so that after one task is completed, the child who needs mobility can follow his "map" to another area where the next task may be completed, and so on.

It isn't really necessary for the entire class, or even a large group, to engage simultaneously in a single lesson. If the lesson is on a cassette (recorded during your actual teaching of the lesson to the first small group) and you have some written materials to accompany it, youngsters can learn it later.

For students who do not read well, have a parent read the written material onto another cassette so that a poor reader may have it read to him. If you have many poor readers in your class, they probably can't listen to either a cassette or to you at length. In this case, try using small group instructional techniques (Circle of Knowledge, Team Learning, Brainstorming) instead of employing extensive taped materials.

The Psychological Elements

ANALYTICAL / GLOBAL

Haven't you noticed children who *first*

- Need to be introduced to a topic step by step, in detail, and then provided an overview?
- Need to be introduced to a topic with an overview first and *then* be taught the details that relate to it?
- Need to be told a rule and then must be given specific examples of its usage?
- Need to be given specific examples of situations in which the rule applies and *then* be given the rule?

  Need stories, anecdotes or humor *before* they become interested in a topic?
- Want to know if what you're saying "is important" and should be remembered *before* they pay attention to it?

Two important studies verified that both analytic people (those who need to be taught sequentially) and global people (those who need to be given an overview of a topic and *then* taught the details) achieve statistically significant better grades when taught with matching methods.

How to Respond to Global/Analytic Differences

First you must identify your own predisposition, for teachers tend to teach the way *they* learn and students learn better when their learning styles match those of their teachers. Then, regardless of your style, use the *opposite* style in teaching part of each lesson. For example, if you're used to introducing a topic with a story and then zeroing in on the details, midway through a lesson, or unit, reverse the technique and review the details and *then* overview the topic again.

You might also purposely vary your strategy so each group has *its* turn at having *its* learning style matched first. Or, you could team-teach important subjects with a colleague whose style is different from your own. Or, you could graph the details or rules for the students and show them this written or illustrated outline at the same time you're introducing the topic with an overview.

HEMISPHERIC PREFERENCE

Haven't you noticed that the *same* children often:

- Don't seem to mind sound/noise, are often "out of their seats" and lounging about, seem to be less motivated and persistent than their classmates, like to be involved with their classmates (more so than with learning!) and often learn less easily by listening than they do by doing or making things?

A recent study of 533 students evidenced that the group that 1) was not bothered by sound 2) preferred dim illumination 3) required an informal design 4) was unmotivated 5) was not persistant 6) preferred learning with peers and 7) preferred tactual learning, scored as significantly more right-hemisphere preferenced than that group whose learning styles did not include those elements.

How to Respond to Hemispheric Preferences

We recognize that children *are* drastically different from each other because of a mixture of biological, environmental and psychological predispositions and we need to respond to those differences. Thus, children who "can't sit" should be able to move from one instructional area to another, as long as they work quietly and achieve; those who learn better with their peers should do so using small group techniques that provide a structured method for following objectives and allow them to *enjoy* working at the same time. Children who don't learn easily by listening, should be given tactile materials through which they can gather information. Responding to youngsters' learning styles will increase motivation on every score and since children cannot change their hemispheric strengths, we should make every effort to use the methods and materials that complement their styles.

IMPULSIVE/REFLECTIVE

We *all* know children who:

- Call out answers before we have finished asking the question.
- Never volunteer answers *unless* they are called on—even when they *know* them!

We often reprimand the type of youngster just described, but rarely recognize that they are victims of their own minds. Research is being conducted to find ways to alter such behaviors, but we still have a great deal to learn.

A widespread "consumer impetus" in this country is strongly advocating an increased voice for parents and communities concerning the teaching and learning processes in which their offspring are involved.

It is just a question of time until the courts legislate Learning Styles-Based Instruction (LSBI). Teachers of preschool and elementary children up to now have been concerned with values development, but it seems that today's parents and communities are placing student achievement, firmly and unequivocally, at the top of the list. ↓

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The Learning Style Preferences of ESL Students

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Following a review of the literature on learning styles and cognitive styles for both native speakers (NSs) and nonnative speakers (NNSs) of English, this article presents the results of a questionnaire that asked 1,388 students to identify their perceptual learning style preferences. Statistical analyses of the questionnaires indicated that NNS learning style preferences often differ significantly from those of NSs; that ESL students from different language backgrounds sometimes differ from one another in their learning style preferences; that other variables such as sex, length of time in the United States, length of time studying English in the U.S., field of study, level of education, TOEFL score, and age are related to differences in learning styles; and that modifications and extensions of ESL student learning styles may occur with changes in academic environment and experience.

During the past decade, educational research has identified a number of factors that account for some of the differences in how students learn. One of these factors, learning styles, is broadly described as "cognitive, affective, and physiological traits that are relatively stable indicators of how learners perceive, interact with, and respond to the learning environment" (Keefe, 1979a, p. 4).

Considerable research in the general area of learning styles has been done with students whose native language is English (Cavanaugh, 1981; Hodges, 1982; Stewart, 1981) and with English speakers learning a second language in the United States and Canada (Ballinger & Ballinger, 1982; Birckbichler & Omaggio, 1978; Genesee & Hamayan, 1980; Hansen & Stansfield, 1981, 1982; Hosenfeld, 1979; A.C. Ramirez, 1986; Wong Fillmore, 1976).

Research on cultural differences in learning styles indicates, for example, that members of industrialized societies and members of nonindustrial societies respond to visual illusions quite differently (Glick, 1975). Lesser, Fifer, and Clark (1965), who studied ethnic groups in elementary schools, found that the pattern of mental abilities (e.g., visual, spatial, abstract, and numerical) displayed by middle-class and lower class Chinese children differed from the pattern displayed by middle-class and lower class Jewish children. Flaugher's (1971) later study with high school students showed similar differences; indeed, research by M. Ramirez and Price-Williams (1974) and R.R. Gonzales and Roll (1985) has questioned the validity of standardized intelligence tests on the basis of cross-cultural differences in cognitive style. Research by Witkin (1976) has shown differences in the global and abstract functioning in different cultures: Different modes of thinking are characteristic of different cultures.

If, indeed, learners outside the mainstream of American culture exhibit unique learning style characteristics, then ESL students may use most of their time and effort trying to adjust to their new learning situations. Therefore, identifying the learning style preferences of nonnative speakers (NNSs) may have wide-ranging implications in the areas of curriculum design, materials development, student orientation, and teacher training.

After summarizing a generation of research on learning styles, this article describes the results of a self-reporting questionnaire designed to determine the perceptual learning styles of ESL students. The questionnaire was administered to 1,234 ESL students in 39 intensive English language programs and to 154 native-speaking university students, and the responses were statistically analyzed to identify the relationship of learning style preferences to such variables as language background, major field of study, level of education, TOEFL score, age, sex, length of time in the United States, and length of time studying in the U.S.

LITERATURE REVIEW

Native Speakers of English

Thirty years ago, educational theorists and researchers were investigating the concept of cognitive style: how the mind actually functions, how it processes information or is affected by each individual's perceptions. Various groups of researchers have worked with pieces of this complex cognitive profile; each group has its own taxonomy and terminology, though some appear to overlap.

For example, Witkin (1976), Witkin, Moore, Goodenough, and Cox (1977), and Witkin, Moore, Oltman, et al. (1977) have written widely about *field independent* (analytic) versus *field dependent*

(global) approaches to experiencing the environment and processing information. Kagan (1966) and Kagan and Messer (1975) have discussed *conceptual tempo:* reflectivity (slower, more calculated guesses) versus impulsivity (quick, risk-taking guesses) in the responses of learners. Hill (1971) has investigated *cognitive style mapping*, an inventory process that references preferred types of media, instructional strategies, and structure of the environment. Messick and Associates (1976) have listed more than 20 dimensions of cognitive style, including those of Witkin and Kagan and sensory (perceptual) modality preferences. Kolb (1976, 1984) has introduced the terms *accommodator, diverger, converger*, and *assimilator* to describe particular student approaches to learning. Gregorc (1979a, 1979b) has done extensive work with his categories of learning—*concrete sequential, abstract sequential, abstract random*, and *concrete random*—which serve as indicators of a learner's mediation abilities and capacities.

In the mid- to late 1970s, paradigms began to be developed to identify the more external, applied modes of learning styles. *Style* refers to a pervasive quality in the learning strategies or the learning behavior of an individual, "a quality that persists though the content may change" (Fischer & Fischer, 1979, p. 245). Seminal research by Dunn and Dunn (1972) resulted in *The Learning Style Inventory* (Dunn, Dunn, & Price, 1975), a self-reporting questionnaire that enables public school students to identify their learning style preferences. Among the 21 identified learning styles, R. Dunn (1983) and Dunn and Dunn (1979) have reported on *perceptual* learning styles, a term that describes the variations among learners in using one or more senses to understand, organize, and retain experience.

Research with U.S. school children (R. Dunn, 1983, 1984; Reinert, 1976) has demonstrated that learners have four basic perceptual learning channels (or modalities):

1. Visual learning: reading, studying charts
2. Auditory learning: listening to lectures, audiotapes
3. Kinesthetic learning: experiential learning, that is, total physical involvement with a learning situation
4. Tactile learning: "hands-on" learning, such as building models or doing laboratory experiments

Research that identifies and measures perceptual learning styles relies primarily on self-reporting questionnaires by which students select their *preferred* learning styles (see Babich, Burdine, Allbright,

& Randol, 1975; Dunn, Dunn, & Price, 1975, 1979; Kolb, 1976; Reinert, 1970).

The research findings of the Dunns and their colleagues verify that most students do correctly identify their learning strengths, particularly when an element is strongly preferred or rejected (R. Dunn, 1984). Dunn and Dunn (1979) found that only 20-30% of school age children appear to be auditory learners, that 40% are visual, and that the remaining 30-40% are tactile/kinesthetic, visual/tactile, or some other combination. Price, Dunn, and Sanders (1980) found that very young children are the most tactile/kinesthetic, that there is a gradual development of visual strengths through the elementary grades, and that only in fifth or sixth grade can most youngsters learn and retain information through the auditory sense. Carbo (1983), investigating the perceptual styles of readers, found that good readers prefer to learn through their visual and auditory senses, while poor readers have a stronger preference for tactile and kinesthetic learning.

Farr (1971), who asked postsecondary students to identify their learning style preferences through self-reporting questionnaires, reported that their preferred learning styles paralleled their actual learning strengths. In another postsecondary study, Domino (1979) found that college students taught in preferred learning styles scored higher on tests, fact knowledge, attitude, and efficiency than those taught in instructional styles different from their preferred styles.

The questions of the identification and classroom application of both student- and teacher-preferred styles are discussed in *Student Learning Styles: Diagnosing and Prescribing Programs* (Keefe, 1979b) and *Student Learning Styles and Brain Behavior: Programs, Instrumentation, Research* (Keefe, 1982). In addition, a host of articles on cognitive and learning styles (unfortunately, the two terms are sometimes used interchangeably) in elementary (e.g., Carbo, 1984; Pizzo, 1982), secondary (e.g., Douglass, 1979; Garger & Guild, 1984; Zampagna, Gentile, Papila, & Silber, 1976), postsecondary (e.g., Grasha, 1984; Pettigrew & Zakrajsek, 1984; Sapp, Elliott, & Bounds, 1983; Schmeck & Grove, 1979), adult education (e.g., Dorsey & Pierson, 1984), and vocational education (e.g., Birkey, 1984; Fourier, 1984; Gregorc & Butler, 1984; Walker, Merryman, & Staszkiewicz, 1984) journals attest to the breadth of current research.

Second Language Learners

Interest and research in second language learning styles has focused on cognitive styles (with some behavioral applications) and on conscious learning strategies. Much of the work concerns the interaction of cognitive styles and affective variables with situational demands (Brown, 1974; Ely, 1986; Hatch, 1974; Heyde, 1977; Naiman, Fröhlich, & Todesco, 1975; Tarone, Swain, & Fathman, 1976; Tucker, Hamayan, & Genesee, 1976). Other studies have concentrated on the role of affective elements and cognitive styles in academic achievement (Abraham, 1983; d'Anglejan, Painchaud, & Renaud, 1986; Bassano, 1986; Bialystok, 1985; Chapelle & Roberts, 1986). Wong Fillmore (1986) has studied the process of learning English in bilingual and ESL classrooms, in particular the role of cultural factors in second language acquisition. The conscious learning strategies of NNS students (e.g., practicing, monitoring, inferencing, memorizing, and self-directed learning) have also been investigated (Bialystok & Fröhlich, 1978; Carver, 1984; Krashen, 1982; Oxford-Carpenter, 1985; Wenden, 1984, 1986a).

Finally, recent studies have investigated culture-specific modes of learning (Scribner & Cole, 1981; Wagner, Messick, & Spratt, 1986). Omaggio (1978) and Cohen (1984) have indicated that NNSs can successfully identify and describe second language learning strategies. Other research includes Wong's (1985) discussion of the "sensory generalist" learning style of limited English proficient Asian students and Wenden's (1986b) overview of the successful language learner. This research in second language learning has revealed that individuals vary in the strategies they employ because of differences in learning styles, affective styles, and cognitive styles.

There is no published research that describes the perceptual learning style preferences of NNSs. Preuniversity ESL students, with their variety of language and cultural backgrounds and their differences in age and previous education, often come together in intensive English language programs in which they are taught homogeneously by teachers who have little knowledge of learning styles. ESL instructors often use methods and materials that have been developed with the learning needs of native speakers of English in mind. In many cases, neither students nor teachers are aware that difficulty in learning class material, high frustration levels, and even failure may not rest solely in the material itself. The study reported in this article was designed to provide baseline data for future research on the perceptual learning style preferences of NNSs and to provide insights for the ESL classroom.

THE SURVEY: DESIGN, SUBJECTS, AND PROCEDURES

A self-reporting questionnaire was developed on the basis of existing learning style instruments, with modifications suggested by NNS informants and U.S. consultants in the fields of linguistics, education, and cross-cultural studies. The survey, which was constructed and validated for NNSs, consisted of randomly arranged sets of 5 statements on each of the six learning style preferences to be measured: visual, auditory, kinesthetic, tactile, group learning, and individual learning (see Appendix). Validation of the questionnaire was done by the split-half method. Correlation analysis of an original set of 60 statements (10 per learning style) determined which 5 statements should remain within each subset.

The survey, including instructions for administration, was mailed to 43 university-affiliated intensive English language programs across the United States, the faculties of which had volunteered to participate in the study. All NNSs in high intermediate or advanced ESL classes in those programs were asked to respond on a voluntary basis to the questionnaire as it applied to their learning English as a foreign language. In addition, 154 native speakers of English involved in various graduate and undergraduate major fields at Colorado State University voluntarily completed the survey instrument. A total of 1,234 questionnaires were returned from 39 of the 43 participating intensive English language programs. Respondents representing 98 countries, 29 major fields of study, and 52 language backgrounds completed the questionnaire. Table 1 summarizes data on the respondents for eight variables.

The individual student variables and the responses from the questionnaires were statistically analyzed. Preference means for each set of variables were classified into three ranges: major, minor, and negative learning style preferences. Analysis of variance and multiple comparison of means tests were run on the preference means ($p < .05$). (Significance from the multiple comparison of means analysis was determined on the basis of the Scheffé test because it is the most valid test for unequal sample sizes and the only one of the seven SPSS multiple comparison of means tests that uses paired comparison of means and maintains total experiment Type I error at $< .05$.)

RESULTS AND DISCUSSION

Generally speaking, the results of this study showed that ESL students strongly preferred kinesthetic and tactile learning styles. Most groups showed a negative preference for group learning.

TABLE 1

Overview of Learning Style Questionnaire Variables

Age	*n*	Language	*n*	TOEFL	*n*
15-19	312	Arabic	194	300-349	2
20-24	532	Spanish	205	350-399	9
25-29	235	Japanese	130	400-449	64
30-34	87	Malay	113	450-474	74
35-39	41	Chinese	90	475-499	97
40-44	16	Korean	118	500-524	120
45-49	4	Thai	47	525-549	104
50-54	3	Indonesian	59	550-574	73
55+	1	English	154	575+	63
		Other	261		

Length of time in U.S.	*n*	Length of time studying English in U.S.	*n*
Less than 3 months	128	Less than 3 months	511
3-6 months	272	3-6 months	266
7-11 months	119	7-11 months	133
12-17 months	151	12-17 months	131
18 months-2 years	66	18 months-2 years	48
Over 2 years	17	Over 2 years	13
Over 3 years	103	Over 3 years	53

Class	*n*	Major field	*n*	Sex	*n*
Graduate	424	Engineering	268	Male	849
Undergraduate	851	Business	277	Female	481
		Humanities	171		
		Computer science	130		
		Hard sciences	54		
		Medicine	43		
		Other	420		

Note. Discrepancies between the totals for each variable and the total number of subjects (or of NNSs) are due to the fact that not every subject supplied the requested information.

Surprisingly, one finding of this learning style preference study was similar to that of a prior pilot project (Reid, 1983): Among all the NNS language groups, Japanese speakers most frequently were significantly different in their preferences.

Graduate/Undergraduate and Male/Female

Graduate students indicated a significantly greater preference for visual and tactile learning than undergraduates, $F(1, 1230) = 29.520$, $p = .0000$, and $F(1, 1210) = 23.065$, $p = .0000$, respectively;

undergraduates were significantly more auditory than graduates, F (1, 1225) = 7.147, p = .0076. Both graduates and undergraduates strongly preferred to learn kinesthetically and tactilely. Males preferred visual and tactile learning significantly more than females, F (1, 1281) = 4.144, p = .0420, and F (1, 1260) = 5.665, p = .0175, respectively.

Major Fields

Statistical analysis did not provide as many significant differences as anticipated, but the results seemed logically consistent (see Table 2). In general, responses for all six major fields indicated that kinesthetic learning was a major learning style preference and that group learning was considered a negative learning style by students in all major fields except computer science. Visual learning was selected as a major learning style only by students in hard sciences; surprisingly, humanities majors were the least oriented toward visual learning. Students in four major fields preferred auditory learning as a major learning style: computer science, hard sciences, business, and medicine. Engineering and computer science majors were significantly more tactile than humanities majors (Scheffé test, $p < .05$); students in all fields except hard sciences indicated that individual learning was a minor learning style.

TABLE 2

Learning Style Preference Means According to Major Field

	Learning style					
Major field	Visual	Auditory	Kinesthetic	Tactile	Group	Individual
Engineering	13.25	13.36	14.56	14.10	11.39	12.34
Medicine	13.11	13.55	13.98	13.30	10.59	13.16
Business	13.07	13.58	14.48	13.81	10.70	12.65
Computer science	13.11	13.89	14.51	14.54	11.53	12.77
Hard sciences	13.70	13.83	14.25	13.83	10.42	13.65
Humanities	12.80	13.26	14.23	13.02	10.96	12.68

Note. Preference means 13.50 and above = major learning style preference; means of 11.50–13.49 = minor learning style preference; means of 11.49 or less = negative learning style preference.

Related learning styles research with native speakers of English suggests that students who shift majors during their academic careers enter fields that are more compatible with their cognitive styles (Witkin, Moore, Oltman, et al., 1977), and some research suggests that people with certain learning styles probably prefer different content areas (Grasha, 1984). Further research into the learning style preferences of ESL students in major fields might focus on similarities to and differences from native English speakers.

Age and TOEFL Score

Although statistical analysis did not result in significant differences for these variables, the trends in learning style preferences were interesting. First, the older the student, the higher the preference means for visual, auditory, kinesthetic, and tactile learning. The learning style preferences of students with higher TOEFL scores more closely paralleled those of native speakers of English. Whether these trends indicate a difference in the ways older students or students with greater language proficiency respond to questionnaires or whether they indicate that these students generally approach learning with more sensory (perceptual) modalities is another area for future research.

Length of Time in the U.S. and Length of Time Studying English in the U.S.

Statistical analyses of these variables generally were consistent with analyses of previous variables. For example, respondents selected kinesthetic and tactile major learning styles, and their negative learning style was group learning. In addition, the auditory learning style demonstrated an interesting trend: The longer students had lived in the United States, the more auditory their preference became. Students who had been in the U.S. more than 3 years were significantly more auditory in their learning style preferences than those students who had been in the U.S. for shorter periods of time (Scheffé test, $p < .05$). Two research questions immediately come to mind. First, do students who have had more "in country" experience with the language simply become more comfortable with auditory learning? Second, and perhaps more important, do students *become* more auditory as they adjust to U.S. academic classrooms (that is, do their learning style preferences change)?

Another interesting trend indicated that students who had studied English in the United States for more than 3 years were somewhat lower in their preference means for visual, kinesthetic, and group learning than all other student respondents. In addition, stud who had studied English in the U.S. for more than 3 years were less tactile in their learning style preferences than students who had been studying English in the U.S. for shorter periods of time. These results also raise a question: When students have lived and studied for an extended time in the U.S., do they adapt their learning styles to the demands of the educational system? In this study, the learning style preference means of the NNSs who had lived and studied in the U.S. the longest more closely resembled the preference means of native speakers of English.

Language Background

Nine language backgrounds, including English, were analyzed; Table 3 gives an overview of major, minor, and negative learning style preferences of students from the nine language backgrounds.

TABLE 3

Learning Style Preference Means According to Language Background

	Learning style					
Language	Visual	Auditory	Kinesthetic	Tactile	Group	Individual
Arabic	13.75	14.06	15.09	14.51	11.51	12.84
Spanish	13.39	13.29	15.11	14.18	10.79	12.79
Japanese	12.52	12.67	13.29	13.32	10.35	12.05
Malay	12.84	13.14	14.31	13.54	12.75	11.65
Chinese	13.55	14.09	14.62	14.52	11.15	12.41
Korean	14.07	13.71	14.58	14.48	11.42	12.46
Thai	13.40	12.81	14.63	14.09	11.49	12.94
Indonesian	13.41	13.78	13.90	13.47	11.15	13.07
English	12.12	13.82	13.64	12.69	10.08	11.13

Note. Preference means 13.50 and above = major learning style preference; means of 11.50–13.49 = minor learning style preference; means of 11.49 or less = negative learning style preference.

Visual learning. Of all language backgrounds, Korean students were the most visual in their learning style preferences; they were significantly more visual than U.S. and Japanese students (Scheffé test, $p < .05$). Arabic and Chinese language groups were also strong visual learners. The selection of visual learning as a minor rather than a major preference by native speakers of English appears to conflict with previous learning style research, much of which reports that "mainstream culture emphasizes visual learning through the written word" (Bennett, 1979, p. 266).

Auditory learning. Japanese speakers were the least auditory of all learners and were significantly less auditory than Arabic and Chinese speakers (Scheffé test, $p < .05$), who expressed a strong preference for auditory learning. Considering that the Arabic sound system most closely parallels English, this result is not surprising. However, the choice of auditory learning by Chinese speakers as a major learning style and the rather similar preference means of the Korean, Indonesian, and English speakers, all of whom chose auditory learning as a major learning style, are results that bear close examination in future research. Thai, Malay, and Spanish students identified auditory learning as a minor learning style.

Kinesthetic learning. Most ESL students strongly preferred kinesthetic learning as a major learning style. However, Japanese speakers were significantly less kinesthetic than Arabic, Spanish, Chinese, Korean, and Thai speakers (Scheffé test, $p < .05$). The strength of most ESL student preference means for kinesthetic learning (i.e., experiential, total physical involvement in learning) has implications for both teachers and students in intensive English language programs. Moreover, although the native speakers of English had the second lowest preference mean in this area, the mean is still indicative of a major learning style preference; it appears that U.S. university students also strongly prefer experiential learning.

Tactile learning. Native speakers of English were less tactile in their learning style preferences than all NNS language backgrounds and were significantly less tactile than Arabic, Chinese, Korean, and Spanish speakers (Scheffé test, $p < .05$). The strong tactile learning style preference expressed by most NNSs, coupled with the equally strong preference for kinesthetic learning, has implications for materials development and for teacher training in intensive English language programs. However, the fact that native speakers of English chose tactile learning only as a minor learning style, as well as the trend toward lower preference means for tactile learning for NNSs who had studied longer in the United States (see above), may indicate that NNSs should be encouraged to adapt their tactile preference to one that more closely parallels that of English speakers. Additional research might focus on how often U.S. academic classes (including laboratory work) employ tactile learning.

Group and individual learning. Every language background, including English, gave group work a minor or a negative preference mean. English speakers rated group work lower than all other language groups and significantly lower than Malay speakers (Scheffé test, $p < .05$). Research with native speakers of English appears to parallel these findings. In a study of secondary school students, Vigna and Martin (1982) found that 84% of the students preferred to work alone. It is important to consider how much group work is done in university classes and in intensive English language programs. If virtually none of the respondents chose group learning as a major learning preference and if many of those respondents indicated that group learning was a negative style, some reexamination of curricula and teaching methods by both ESL and university teachers may be in order.

None of the language groups showed a strong (major) preference for individual learning; however, English speakers rated individual learning the highest, while Malaysian students, whose preference mean for group learning was the highest among the nine language backgrounds, had the lowest preference mean for individual learning. It is probable that culture—in particular, previous educational experience—enters into student learning style preferences for group and individual learning. Additional research will help to identify those cultural and educational differences.

Overview of ESL Learning Style Preferences

Table 3 shows some interesting trends. Arabic, Chinese, and Korean students appear to have multiple major learning style preferences. For the Arabic and Chinese speakers, these results may be due to the multiple cultures involved: Both language groups included students from several countries. Another reason may be that some language and cultural groups (e.g., Korean) may be predisposed toward very positive responses on questionnaires, while others (e.g., native speakers of English) appear to respond across all available options (positive to negative).

For reasons yet unknown (although culture may certainly play a role), Japanese speakers did not, as a group, identify a single major learning style; that may be why they differed significantly in so many of the statistical analyses. On the other hand, Spanish speakers were definite in their choice of preferences: They chose kinesthetic and tactile as major learning styles; group learning as a negative style; and visual, auditory, and individual learning as minor learning styles. Malay and Thai speakers appear to have similar learning styles; moreover, Malay and Arabic speakers were the only groups to identify group learning as a minor (rather than a negative) learning style. Finally, Indonesian speakers appear to be most closely related to native English speakers; both groups chose auditory and kinesthetic as major learning styles, group learning as a negative style, and visual, tactile, and individual learning as minor styles.

The results of the ESL learning style questionnaire seem to parallel, support, and add to previous research in several ways:

1. ESL students often differ significantly in various ways from native speakers of English in their perceptual learning styles.
2. ESL students from different language (and by extension different educational and cultural) backgrounds sometimes differ significantly from each other in their learning style preferences.
3. Analysis of other variables, such as sex, length of time spent in the United States, major field, and level of education, indicates that they differ significantly in their relationship to various learning style preferences.
4. The data suggest that as ESL students adapt to the U.S. academic environment, some modifications and extensions of learning styles may occur.

ISSUES RELATED TO THE USE OF THE DATA

Two theoretical problems arise in applying the results of this learning style preference study to NNSs: (a) how to "match" students' learning style preferences with "teacher styles" and (b) whether or not student learning style preferences are malleable.

Matching of Student and Teacher "Styles"

Research with secondary students (Hodges, 1982) has demonstrated that "approximately 90% of traditional classroom instruction is geared to the auditory learner. Teachers *talk* to their students, *ask* questions, and *discuss* facts. However . . . only 20% to 30% of any large group could remember 75% of what was presented through discussion" (pp. 30-31). To solve this problem, some learning style theorists suggest matching teachers' and students' styles. In this way, students are exposed to teaching styles that are consistent with their learning styles (Barbe, Swassing, & Milone, 1979; Dunn, 1984; Dunn & Dunn, 1979; Dunn, Dunn, & Price, 1978; Gregorc, 1979b; Hunt, 1979). G. Gonzalez (1977) urges teachers in bilingual classrooms to identify individual variables and determine various approaches to achieve interaction.

However, others (Cronbach & Snow, 1977), while agreeing that the development of effective teaching behaviors is essential to student achievement (Brophy, 1986), believe that basing instructional adaptation on student preferences does not improve learning and may be detrimental. From the educator's viewpoint, schools exist to serve both society and the individual; striking that balance must necessarily limit individualized education (Davidman, 1981). Moreover, even if researchers and educators successfully develop learning style assessment procedures, specify learning outcomes, and relate educational experience to them, the actual impact on classroom teaching may be limited unless teachers can be persuaded to use that knowledge (Grasha, 1984). One solution to this problem might be to educate teachers about the possible impact of teaching and learning styles and at the same time to develop a "culture-sensitive pedagogy" (Laboratory of Comparative Human Cognition, 1986).

Adaptation of Student Learning Styles

Researchers have discovered that for both native English-speaking and bilingual/NNS elementary school children, learning styles can change as the child develops (Barbe & Milone, 1981; M. Ramirez & Castenada, 1974). However, earlier studies reported that with secondary and postsecondary students, learning styles, like aptitude, were immutable, that they remained consistent, regardless of the subject taught or the environment (Copenhaver, 1979; Reinert, 1976).

More recent research has demonstrated that young adult and adult learning styles are moderately strong habits rather than intractable biological attributes, and thus they can be modified and extended (Davidman, 1981). According to Schmeck (1981), context and task influence the learning styles of native speakers of English; many individuals can change their strategies in response to the unique contextual demands of the instruction, the context, and the task. Dorsey and Pierson (1984) conclude that age and prior work experience influence learning styles, and their data indicate that the adult, especially after age 33, learns better by doing (kinesthetic learning). Finally, Fourier (1984) suggests that more mature students "learn intuitively to adjust to instructor cognitive styles" (p. 153).

In bicultural and multicultural environments, Tarone (1979) found that style shifting occurs when the same person responds to different contexts, and Cohen (1984) indicated that second language learners can use strategies which have been shown to be successful to accelerate learning. Recent research results by O'Malley, Chamot, Stewner-Manzanares, Küpper, and Russo (1985) and O'Malley, Chamot, Stewner-Manzanares, Russo, and Küpper (1985) suggest that second language learners can improve their language performance by being trained to use specific strategies.

IMPLICATIONS AND DIRECTIONS FOR FUTURE RESEARCH

If educators can assume that learning styles are adaptable, that learning style preferences can be identified and modified, and that unconscious or subconscious learning styles can become conscious learning strategies, then students, native speakers of English as well as NNSs, should be exposed to the concept of learning styles. Research with native speakers of English strongly suggests that the ability of students to employ multiple learning styles results in greater classroom success (Cronbach & Snow, 1977; Stewart, 1981).

Consequently, students should have the opportunity to assess their own learning style preferences and should be encouraged to diversify those preferences. Friedman and Alley (1984) suggest that teacher guidance can initially motivate students to identify and utilize their preferred learning styles and to take deliberate advantage of those preferences. If teachers can show students the variety and versatility of learning styles by providing experiences in different teaching styles, the resulting awareness and expansion of student learning styles may better allow students to meet the demands of academic teaching methods and assignments (Grasha, 1972).

Thus, one goal of instruction could be to help students identify and assess their individual learning styles. Another could be to allow students to sample unfamiliar teaching and learning styles. Indeed, a teacher who can "purposefully exhibit a wide range of teaching styles is potentially able to accomplish more than a teacher whose repertoire is relatively limited" (Smith & Renzulli, 1984, p. 49). Another curricular solution might be to devise alternative instructional situations to accommodate the variations in learning styles that may exist in a classroom. Of course, designing and implementing the curricular alternatives require skills in a variety of teaching styles as well as the ability to manage the complexities of such a classroom.

For NNSs, the concept of learning style preferences may be completely new. The fact that students learn in different ways and the possibility that students can adapt to a variety of instructional modes may come both as a surprise and a relief. Students whose previous education differed radically from the U.S. academic environment may benefit particularly from a discussion of learning styles, a self-assessment instrument, and experience with alternative styles that will help them function better in a university classroom. Moreover, the understanding and use of different teaching styles by the instructor, as well as the awareness of individual learning styles by the student, may influence success in the classroom.

There are, of course, dangers in the misuse of learning style assessment, diagnosis, and prescription. First, turning questionnaire results into stereotypes used to pigeonhole individuals or cultural groups denies students the opportunity to develop fully. Moreover, the variables that affect learning in general education, and in second language learning in particular, are complex. A multiplicity of interacting factors must be taken into account: the compensating role of motivation, the nature of the learning task, the relationship between teacher and student, and other situational variables (Doyle & Rutherford, 1984). In short, learning style preferences of students cannot be the sole basis for designing instruction, and prescription based on diagnosis must be tentative, varied, monitored, and verified (Gregorc, 1979a, p. 236).

In addition to the problem of the complexity of identifying learning styles, Corbett and Smith (1984) discuss the problem of the reliability of such learning style instruments as the Edmonds Learning Style Identification Exercise (Reinert, 1970). Their study showed that individual variation tended to be consistent and therefore suggestive of external reliability but that group variation lacked consistency and therefore tended to be less reliable. Gregorc (1979b) lists three shortcomings of existing self-assessment instruments: (a) The instruments are exclusive (i.e., they focus on certain variables); (b) the students may not self-report accurately; and (c) the students have adapted for so long that they may report on adapted preferences. Finally, McLaughlin (1981), in discussing the problems of analyzing inventory data, states that research

> has tended to identify people on the basis of socioeconomic status, ethnicity, or IQ, rather than functional characteristics such as cognitive style, motivation, and temperament. Perhaps the most important future development is the determination of those functional characteristics that, interacting with specific treatments, influence learning. (p. 345)

For all of these reasons, both teachers and students involved in identifying and using information on learning styles should proceed with caution and be aware that no single diagnostic instrument can solve all learning problems.

Many variables related to the learning styles of NNSs need further research and analysis. Future research projects might attempt to replicate this study and to assess the accuracy of student self-assessment through classroom observation and testing. Additional refinement of student variables and subgroups, as well as the addition of new variables, would extend the research. Translation of the questionnaire into students' native languages so that it can be administered to NNSs whose English is at an elementary level would provide baseline data for a longitudinal study of those students' learning style preferences. Questions concerning the evolution, modification, and/or expansion of learning styles, and the relationship of such changes to cultural adjustment, must be answered: Do the learning styles of NNSs change as they adjust to U.S. academic classes/teachers? Do students from some cultures or some major fields of study adjust more easily or have fewer adjustments to make?

The relationships between teaching and learning styles and developmental processes also need to be studied. For example, should beginning language learners be taught initially in their preferred learning styles in order, perhaps, to reduce what Krashen (1982) calls the affective filter? Certainly, work should proceed toward integrating the complex construct of learning. Second language researchers should focus on the long-term goal of an integrated student profile—cognitive, affective, perceptual, and environmental. They should move beyond impressionistic, often redundant descriptions and toward assessment procedures that will increase the student's independence and initiative in learning.

■

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APPENDIX

Perceptual Learning Style Preference Questionnaire

Name ______________ Age ________ Date ______________

Native Country ______________ Native Language ______________

Graduate ________ Undergraduate ________ Male ________ Female ________

How long did you study English in your country? ______________

How long have you been living in the U.S.? ______________

How long have you studied English in the U.S.? ______________

What is your major field? ______________

Most recent TOEFL score? ________ Date of TOEFL ________

Directions: People learn in many different ways. For example, some people learn primarily with their eyes (visual learners) or with their ears (auditory learners); some people prefer to learn by experience and/or by "hands-on" tasks (kinesthetic or tactile learners); some people learn better when they work alone, while others prefer to learn in groups.

This questionnaire has been designed to help you identify the way(s) you learn best—the way(s) you *prefer* to learn.

Read each statement on the following pages. Please respond to the statements AS THEY APPLY TO YOUR STUDY OF ENGLISH. Decide whether you agree or disagree with each statement. For example, if you *strongly agree,* mark:

strongly agree	agree	undecided	disagree	strongly disagree
X				

Please respond to each statement quickly, without too much thought. Try not to change your responses after you choose them. Please use a pen to mark your choices.

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Questionnaire Statements

1. When the teacher tells me the instructions, I understand better.
2. I prefer to learn by doing something in class.
3. I get more work done when I work with others.
4. I learn more when I study with a group.
5. In class, I learn best when I work with others.
6. I learn better by reading what the teacher writes on the chalkboard.
7. When someone tells me how to do something in class, I learn it better.
8. When I do things in class, I learn better.
9. I remember things I have heard in class better than things I have read.
10. When I read instructions, I remember them better.
11. I learn more when I can make a model of something.
12. I understand better when I read instructions.
13. When I study alone, I remember things better.
14. I learn more when I make something for a class project.
15. I enjoy learning in class by doing experiments.
16. I learn better when I make drawings as I study.
17. I learn better in class when the teacher gives a lecture.
18. When I work alone, I learn better.
19. I understand things better in class when I participate in role playing.
20. I learn better in class when I listen to someone.
21. I enjoy working on an assignment with two or three classmates.
22. When I build something, I remember what I have learned better.
23. I prefer to study with others.
24. I learn better by reading than by listening to someone.
25. I enjoy making something for a class project.
26. I learn best in class when I can participate in related activities.
27. In class, I work better when I work alone.
28. I prefer working on projects by myself.
29. I learn more by reading textbooks than by listening to lectures.
30. I prefer to work by myself.

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Appendix B

BIBLIOGRAPHY OF TESTS FOR LIMITED ENGLISH PROFICIENT STUDENTS

ORAL LANGUAGE PROFICIENCY

1. Basic Inventory of Natural Language (BINL)
Grade Range: K-12
Languages: Arabic, Armenian, Cambodian, Cantonese, Chinese, Creole, Dutch, English, Farsi, French, German, Greek, Hindi, Hmong, Ilokano, Inpuiaq, Italian, Japanese, Korean, Laotian, Navajo, Pilipino, Polish, Portuguese, Russian, Spanish, Taiwanese, Tagalog, Toishnese, Ukranian, Vietnamese, Yugoslavian
Source: Checkpoint Systems
1558 N. Waterman, Suite C
San Bernardino, CA 92404
(714) 888-3296

2. Bilingual Oral Language Tests (BOLT)
Grade Range: 4-12
Languages: English and Spanish
Source: Bilingual Media Productions
P.O. Box 9337
North Berkeley, CA 74709
(415) 548-3777

3. Bilingual Syntax Measure (BSM)
Grade Range: Level I, K-2; Level II, 3-12
Languages: Spanish and English
Source: The Psychological Corporation
7555 Caldwell Ave.
Chicago, IL 60648
(312) 641-3400

4. Comprehensive English Language Test (CELT)
Grade Range: High Schools-Adults
Language: English
Source: McGraw-Hill International Book Co.
300 West 42nd Street
New York, NY 10036

5. Idea Oral Language Proficiency Test (IPT)
Grade Range: K-1
Languages: English, Spanish, and Portuguese
Source: Ballard and Tighe, Inc.
580 Atlas Street
Brea, CA 92621
(714) 990-IDEA

6. Ilyin Oral Interview
Grade Range: 7-Adult
Language: English
Source: Newbury House Publishers
68 Middle Road
Rowley, MA 01969

7. Language Assessment Battery (LAB)
Grade Range: Level I, K-2; Level II, 3-6; Level III, 7-12
Languages: Spanish and English
Source: Riverside Publishing
8420 W. Bryn Mawr Ave.
Chicago, IL 60631
(312) 693-0040

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Appendix B (Cont.)

8. Language Assessment Scales (LAS)

Grade Range:	Pre-LAS, Pre K-1; Level I, K-5; Level II, 6-12
Languages:	Spanish and English
Source:	Linguametrics Group P.O. Box 3495 San Rafael, CA 94912-3495 (415) 499-9350

9. Language Assessment Umpire (LAU)

Grade Range:	K-8
Languages:	English and Spanish
Source:	Santillana Publishing Co. 257 Union Street Northvale, NJ 07647 (201) 767-6961

10. Michigan Test of English Language Proficiency

Grade Range:	High School-Adults
Language:	English
Source:	English Language Institute 2001 N. University Bldg. University of Michigan Ann Arbor, MI 48109

11. The Woodcock Language Proficiency Battery

Grade Range:	Ages 3-Adult
Languages:	English and Spanish (Batería)
Source:	Teaching Resources Corporation, DLM 303 Wyman, Suite 300 Waltham, MA 02154 (617) 890-6139

READING

12. Degrees of Reading Power:

Grade Range	Form PA 8 grades 3-4, Form PA 6 grades 5-6, Form PA 4 grades 7-8, Form PA 2 grades 9-12
Language	English
Source	DRP Services The College Board 888 Seventh Avenue New York, NY 10106 (212) 582-6210

13. Inter-American Series - Test of Reading and Prueba de lectura

Grade Range	Levels 1-5, grades 1-12
Languages	Spanish and English
Source	Guidance Testing Associates P.O. Box 28096 San Antonio, TX 78228 (512) 434-4060

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Appendix B (Cont.)

ACHIEVEMENT TESTS

14. Brigance: Comprehensive Inventory of Basic Skills

Grade Range: Yellow, birth-7 years
White, K-1 Screening
Orange, K-8 Assessment of Basic Skills-Spanish
Green, K-9 Comprehensive Inventory of Basic Skills
Blue, K-6 Inventory of Basic Skills
Red, 4-12 Inventory of Essential Skills
Languages: English and Spanish
Source: Curriculum Associates, Inc.
5 Esquire Road
North Billerica, MA 01862-2589

15. California Achievement Tests (CAT)

Grade Range: 1-12: Level 1, grades 1.5-2.9; Level II, grades 2-4.9; Level III, grades 4-6.9; Level IV, grades 6-9.9; Level V, grades 9-12.9 (reviewed for grades 2-6)
Language: English
Source: CTB/McGraw-Hill
Del Monte Research Park
Monterey, CA 93940
(800) 538-9547

16. Comprehensive Test of Basic Skills (Reading, Language and Mathematics Sections)

Grade Range: K-12: Level A, K-1.3; Level B, K.6-1.9; Level C, 1.6-2.9; Level 1, 2.5-4.9; Level 2, 4.5-6.9; Level 3, 6.5-8.9; Level 4, 8.5-12.9 (reviewed for K-6)
Languages: Spanish and English
Level 4 not available in Spanish
Source: McGraw-Hill
Del Monte Research Park
Monterey, CA 93940
(800) 538-9547

17. The 3-R's Test/La Prueba Riverside de Realización en Español:

Grade Range: Level 6: Grade K; Level 7: Grade 1; Level 8: Grade 2; Level 9: Grade 3; Level 10: Grade 4; Level 11: Grade 5; Level 12: Grade 6; Level 13: Grade 7; Level 14: Grade 8 and 9
Languages: English and Spanish
Source: The Riverside Publishing Company
8420 Bryn Mawr Avenue
Chicago, IL 60631
(800) 323-9540

18. Inter-American Series - Test of General Ability

Grade Range: Preschool, ages 4-5; Level 1, age 6 for end of Kinder and beginning of grade 1; Level 2, age 7-8, grades 2-3; Level 3, age 9-11, grades 4-6; Level 4, age 12-14, grades 7-9; Level 5, age 15-18, grades 10-12
Languages: English and Spanish
Source: Guidance Testing Associates
P.O. Box 28096
San Antonio, TX 78228
(512) 434-4060

19. Short Test of Education Ability (STEA)

Grade Range: K-12
Languages: English and Spanish
Source: Science Research Associates
259 E. Erie Street
Chicago, IL 60611

MULTISYSTEM

Systematic Instructional Planning for
Exceptional Bilingual Students

CULTURALLY
AND
LINGUISTICALLY
APPROPRIATE
PROGRAMMING

RESOURCE MATERIALS

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    Ramirez, M., & Castañeda, A. (1974). Cultural Democracy, Bicognitive Development and Education. New York: Academic Press

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    Excellent awareness package for teachers on working with Puerto Rican students. Values, interactional patterns, and understanding non-verbal communication is explored.

3. Jaramillo, M. (May, 1972). Cultural Differences Revealed Through Language. NCRIEEO Tip Sheet #8, Teachers College, Columbia University, Box 40.

    This is an excellent article which explores cultural values that are revealed through language and the implication of diverse values and perspectives on the teaching and learning process.

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BACKGROUND ARTICLES

THE NATURAL APPROACH IN BILINGUAL EDUCATION

Tracy D. Terrell

Introduction

APPROACHES TO SECOND LANGUAGE instruction today may be classified as communicative or grammar based. In communicative-based instruction, goals, teaching techniques, and student evaluation are all based on behavioral objectives defined in terms of abilities to communicate messages. For example, can the students describe the place where they live? Or, can they recount an incident that took place before they arrived at school? In grammar-based instruction, goals, teaching techniques, and student evaluation are defined in terms of accuracy in grammar usage; for example, can the students correctly use the two forms of the verb *be* in the past tense? Or, can the students form tag questions?

Grammar-based approaches are most successful in contexts in which the goal is either a knowledge of grammar or the ability to produce grammatically correct sentences in a limited communicative context. Grammar-based approaches such as grammar translation, audio-lingualism, or cognitive-code have been overwhelming failures in preparing students to function in normal communicative contexts. This has led the profession to modify the use of these approaches in the direction of communicative-based approaches, especially when teaching a second language to language minority children. In these cases, English as a second language (ESL) instructors, for example, are aware that the instructional goals must be immediately relevant to the functional language needs of their students in learning to live in a different language environment.

Several communicative approaches have been reported in the professional literature: Lozanov's Suggestopedia (Bancroft, 1978; Lozanov, 1975, 1978), Curran's Community Counseling-Learning (Curran, 1976; LaForge, 1971; Stevick, 1973, 1980), Galyean's Confluent Education (Galyean, 1976; 1977), and Terrell's Natural Approach (Terrell, 1977, 1980, in press; Krashen and Terrell, in press) to mention those most widely used. All are derived from the same philosophical position regarding language instruction: that the ability to communicate messages in spoken or written form is the primary goal of instruction and that classroom activities, textbooks, and other materials (as well as the evaluation of student progress) are formulated in communicative rather than grammatical or structural terms. In addition, they are based implicitly (or sometimes explicitly) on the same theory of second-language acquisition, namely, that in order to acquire language, students need a rich acquisition environment (Blair, in press) in which they are receiving "comprehensible input" in low anxiety situations (Krashen, 1977; 1978; 1979; 1981; in press).

Unfortunately, the specific techniques of both Suggestopedia and Community Counseling-Learning are not easily applicable to normal elementary and secondary classroom situations; and I will not discuss them further here. Galyean's humanistic techniques, on the other hand, are entirely consistent with the philosophy and practice of the Natural Approach. [See Galyean (1976) and Moscowitz (1978) for other sources of communicative-based classroom activities.]

The Natural Approach, however, is not simply a series of specific classroom techniques but also a philosophy of goals in language teaching based on a theory of second-language acquisition, which predicts how these goals might be met. All human beings possess the ability to acquire second languages if they can receive "comprehensible input" in low-anxiety situations. Children acquire second-language competence slowly but in the long run are nearly indistinguishable from native speakers. Adults, if they receive "comprehensible input," acquire language quite rapidly at first but often have far more difficulty interacting within a new culture. This, in turn, increases difficulty in obtaining "comprehensible input" and limits the degree to which native speaker levels of competence can be achieved. This does not mean, however, that adults cannot become quite comfortable in their normal daily functioning in the second language. It does mean that native levels of grammatical accuracy, especially phonological accuracy, with few exceptions, will not be achieved.

The techniques and specific classroom practices of the Natural Approach are designed, then, to facilitate the natural acquisition process. Although there is a basic unity to the approach, there will be some differences in its application to children as opposed to adolescents or adults. We will be concerned specifically in this paper with the application of the Natural Approach to second (as opposed to foreign) language English instruction in bilingual-bicultural education programs, kindergarten through eighth grade.

Principles of the Natural Approach

The evidence from research in second-language acquisition supports the notion that there are two rather different ways of internalizing language. Following the terminology of Krashen (1977; 1978) and others,

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the term *acquisition* will refer to development of language proficiency without conscious recourse to rules, while the term *learning* will refer to development of language proficiency through the conscious, directly accessible knowledge about language rules. Krashen has hypothesized that those two modes of internalizing language are interrelated in a particular way, i.e., acquired rules are used to initiate utterances, while consciously learned rules are used in a more restricted way to *monitor* for correctness and perhaps appropriateness. Thus, acquired rules occupy a central position in all language use, while consciously learned rules play a more intermittent and peripheral role.

In the Natural Approach, the centrality of the acquisition process is recognized, and the classroom techniques are specifically designed to facilitate this natural process. This is not to say that learning activities are not a part of the approach, but their role is always subordinate to that of acquisition. In the following discussion, I will focus mainly on techniques for encouraging acquisition; it is probable that in most cases some conscious learning also takes place.

For the sake of exposition, language skills may be considered by stages: I. Survival communication skills; II. Extended communication, beginning literacy; and III. Language for academic purposes. Stage I consists of the beginning of Cummins' Basic Interpersonal Communication Skills (BICS), and Stage III corresponds to his Cognitive/Academic Language Proficiency (CALP) (see Cummins, 1978; 1981). Stage II is simply the transition between the two. In this paper, I will concentrate on Stages I and II, since the Natural Approach is concerned mainly with the acquisition of BICS.

There are two basic principles of the Natural Approach in teaching Basic Interpersonal Communication Skills: (1) speech is not taught directly but rather is acquired by means of "comprehensible input" in low-anxiety environments, and (2) speech emerges in natural stages (Terrell, in press; Krashen and Terrell, in press).

The first principle, that the ability to comprehend underlies the ability to speak, stems from observing both children and adults in natural language acquisition situations. It says, essentially, that we need not worry about the neurological mechanism of acquisition, e.g., exactly how each child or adult acquires. If the conditions specified below are met, acquirers will be successful in obtaining competence in Basic Interpersonal Communication Skills.

Following Krashen (1977; 1978; 1979; 1981), there are three important conditions that must be met if acquisition is to occur:

1. *The acquirer must receive "comprehensible input."* Acquirers must hear (or in certain cases, read) language they understand. It is important to realize that by *understand* we do not mean that the acquirers recognize the meaning of every word used, can interpret every grammatical structure correctly, nor that they know the meanings of all the morphemes in the sentence. What we do mean is that the acquirer understands the essential meaning of the message communicated.
2. *The speech must contain a message and there must be a need to communicate that message.* Sentences created only for practice of some rules and that do not contain real messages to be communicated may serve some *learning* purpose, but they will not be useful for *acquisition*.
3. Even if these conditions are met, acquisition may not occur if the acquirer is under stress or emotional tension. Therefore, *the "comprehensible input" must be supplied in low-anxiety environments.* Acquirers of all ages need to feel secure *affectively* in order for the acquisition process to take place. We will return in some detail to techniques for guaranteeing that each of these conditions will be met in the language classroom.

The second general principle of the Natural Approach claims that speech will emerge in natural stages during the acquisition process. I will consider briefly these stages and return later to each in more detail.

The first stage consists of a pre-production period labeled the "silent" period or the "pre-speech" stage. In this period, the acquirers are concerned with gaining competence in comprehending messages in the new language. It is the time for getting used to a new phonology (including supersegmentals such as rhythm and intonation), associating new lexical items with familiar concepts (mostly concrete entities, qualities, or events), and with new body language and gestures. Grammatical signals of morphology (word formation) and syntax (sentence formation) are justifiably ignored by the acquirer in this period as irrelevant to basic comprehension. This "pre-speech" period may last from just a few hours to several months. Children acquiring second languages usually need a longer pre-speech stage (three to six months) than adults (several hours to several weeks). (For evidence supporting a pre-production stage, see Asher, 1969; Davies, 1976; Nord, 1980; Postovsky, 1974; Winitz and Reeds, 1973.)

Speech emerges slowly but naturally at different moments for different individuals. The first natural speech to emerge usually consists of single-word responses, of short fixed phrases, or routine expressions. These are usually words and phrases the acquirers have heard and comprehended in many contexts and feel confident enough to produce. It may consist of single-word items such as *yes, no, me, play, go, pencil,* and *peper;* or routine expressions such as *thank you, I'm fine, What you doing?* and so forth. The transition to the single-word production stage from the pre-speech stage to early production should occur spontaneously without any coersion on the part of the instructor. Forcing production before the acquirer is ready will at best delay language acquisition and force reliance on patterns and other learned material, and at worst may create blocks to the acquisition of the new language, blocks which later could prove to be quite difficult to remove.

If the acquirer continues to receive sufficient "comprehensible input" and the affective conditions for acquisition are met, speech will continue to improve in fluency and correctness. Acquirers will slowly expand their lexicon and grammar, producing longer and longer phrases as they begin to acquire the rules of discourse and the broad range of skills we refer to as communicative competence. It should be remembered, however, that forcing students to produce speech that is more complex than their acquired competence will only slow down the process.

The important point is that the instructor's primary responsibility is not to force speech production but rather to create the necessary conditions for acquisition to take place. Speech will emerge when the acquirer is given the opportunity and need to speak in non-coersive, low-anxiety situations.

Natural Language Acquisition Situations

Let us consider briefly informal evidence for the above claims taken from natural language acquisition situations. We will examine children and adults in first- and second-language acquisition contexts.

Children, when acquiring their first language, are in optimal situations for language acquisition. Those who take care of children assume that they will acquire language without any explicit teaching although a few people have the mistaken belief that they teach their children to speak. Children are given a long pre-production period. Caretakers speak to their children seeking to convey messages long before they utter their first words. In addition, all of the conditions for acquisition are met: Caretakers do not speak to children aimlessly but try to convey messages; for the most part, these messages are important to the children in their interactions with their environment and the people in their environment. Caretakers neither drill children nor create grammatical exercises for them. Children's attempts to comprehend, and especially their attempts to produce speech, are greeted with praise; and they are considered to be successful even when they only partially comprehend or make the barest attempt at production. Simply put, caretakers have high expectations for eventual success (all normal children acquire their first language at native levels of basic interpersonal communicative competence) but are accepting of imperfect stages in the process. This acceptance of errors and incomplete utterance encourages children to continue to interact with success in the language they are acquiring. This is the case in spite of the fact that many caretakers mistakenly believe that they indeed do correct children's errors and that it is this correction that leads to language acquisition. Finally, children are immersed in "comprehensible input" from many sources for many hours of the day. It is no wonder that the acquisition process works so well in child first-language acquisition.

In situations of child second-language acquisition, conditions may not be as optimal as in first-language acquisition, since children are usually aware that they cannot interact in the new language as can native speakers of their same age. This can inhibit them, especially in initial stages of seeking and obtaining contacts with other children and adults. However, in most cases, children acquiring second languages are allowed a pre-production period in which they begin to comprehend but are required to say very little. In their early attempts at speech production, children will make many grammatical errors; however, these are normally accepted by native speaker peers and adults without too much fuss. Indeed, since children are usually allowed to respond or even initiate conversations with very short utterances, errors are not as apparent as they might be were the child to be forced to produce large amounts of speech. If the child continues to obtain "comprehensible input," progress in fluency and accuracy in the second language is steady.

Adults in natural second-language acquisition contexts, for example, immigrants to another culture, experience many more difficulties in obtaining "comprehensible input" under optimal conditions. First of all, although we simplify our speech in order to make less competent non-native speakers understand, it is difficult to judge the necessary level of the non-native speakers until we have interacted with them for more than a few initial moments. It is not always easy for non-native speakers to integrate themselves into the new society in such a way as to make friends who will be interested enough in communicating with the acquirers to take the time and trouble to talk to them over extended periods of time, making their speech comprehensible. In addition, the process of speech simplification so necessary for making the input comprehensible is not as easy in the case of adults as it is for children, since adults tend to be interested in more complex topics of conversation and have communicative needs that require much more sophisticated levels of language than do children. Thus, adults who have to deal with the difficulties of living in a new culture will tend to concentrate on being in the company of those who speak their language.

Adults are more aware of correctness in language and find it much more difficult emotionally to speak with reduced structures and a high level of grammatical incorrection. This seems to be a self-generated feeling of inadequacy since, for the most part, native speakers of a language do not overtly correct foreigners who are acquiring the language any more than they do with children.

In conclusion, the same factors that guarantee successful acquisition of a first or second language for children are also necessary for adult language acquisition. But while most adults are successful, if imperfect acquirers, they usually have more difficulty than children.

Teacher Behaviors in the Natural Approach

The primary factor in reaching acceptable levels of competence in basic interpersonal communication is "comprehensible input." Most children in ESL classes have been and are continually exposed to input in English, often, however, much of the input is not comprehended and is therefore useless for acquisition. If the only "comprehensible input" the children receive is in the ESL classroom, they will acquire, but the process can be painfully slow and inadequate to their need for interacting in an English-speaking environment. Thus, the teacher has two primary responsibilities: (1) provide a source of "comprehensible input" such that the acquisition process is begun, and (2) provide for the comprehension of sufficient lexical items (words) in domains outside the classroom so that children can begin to make use of other sources of input. This would include input from older siblings whose English is more advanced, teachers, administrators, and other English-speaking adults, English-speaking peers, and so forth. The more quickly children can take advantage of sources of input other than the ESL instructor, the faster will be the progress in acquisition.

In the classroom, instructors must: (1) create a necessity for communication of some message, (2) communicate a message, and (3) modify (simplify) their speech until the students understand the message. There are several general modifications caretakers make in their speech to children or which native speakers make in their speech to foreigners that are helpful in ensuring comprehension (Hatch, 1979).

Before examining these important speech modification techniques, it should be stressed that translation via the native language of the acquirer is *not* necessary or even desirable, except perhaps in exceptional circumstances. If the instructor has asked a question or given an instruction that has not been understood, it will be necessary to modify speech, repeating the message in several forms until comprehension is achieved. This modification (often simplification) is what ensures that the acquirer

will achieve input at the correct (i + 1) level (Krashen, 1981). If instructors resort to translation through their own knowledge of the students' languages or through native speaker teacher's aides, the input has not been made comprehensible; rather, the message has been transmitted via another medium, i. e., the first language. Consequently, the most important part of the input process has been eliminated. Indeed, the process of modification and simplification in order to ensure comprehension of some message is always more important in terms of acquisition than is the message itself. If opportunities for "comprehensible input" are lost because of frequent translation, acquisition will be severely retarded.

What is it, then, that instructors can do to ensure comprehension through speech modification and simplification? First, it should be emphasized that the modifications of speech necessary for comprehension by an acquirer cannot be consciously controlled to a high degree. Thus, the following discussion is meant to be a *description* of what will happen to the speech of an instructor whose central purpose is to convey messages to children with limited English competence. Again, this observation only underscores the importance of maintaining the focus of both instructor and students on the communication of messages rather than linguistic form and correctness of those messages.

Hatch (1979) reports the general modifications to speech that may help acquirers (see also Krashen, 1980). The first is to talk slower to acquirers. This does not mean the speech is distorted nor is it exaggeratedly slow. For English, this means clearer articulation [fewer reduced vowels, fewer consonants deleted, fewer contractions, fewer fused forms (*do you want to* rather than "jew wanna"), longer pauses at natural breaks, etc.]. Also helpful is increased volume on key words and exaggerated intonation accompanied by appropriate body language and movement. Vocabulary can be modified to include high frequency words with fewer idioms and less slang. The use of pronouns can be reduced in favor of using specific names of the intended referents instead of *one, he, her, us, their,* etc. An attempt to clarify the meaning of possibly unfamiliar words within the speech context should be made. For example, a mother might say to a child, *"Where's your new domino game? You know, those little black things with white dots?"* Vocabulary acquisition is aided by the use of visuals, the objects themselves, pictures, and/or gestures that aid in clarification.

The syntax of speech addressed to learners is often simpler. Sentences are usually shorter, with less compounding and subordination of clauses. New information in each sentence is reduced. Often, key topics can be repeated: *Did you have a good weekend, you know, Friday, Saturday?*

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Finally, the subject of the communication will be most easily comprehended if it is familiar to listeners. For children, this means little displacement; they should focus on the here and now. For all ages, this means using visual aids: pictures, objects films, slides, acting out, etc. It means avoiding abstractions in beginning stages and using all sorts of extralinguistic means to aid comprehension or carry meaning since often the new words cannot by themselves.

Concentrating on comprehension of real messages also means avoiding the use of language drills and grammar exercises which, by their very nature, are out of context and contain no important message to be conveyed to listeners. (We will return to this position when we discuss the sorts of acceptable acquisition activities to be used in the Natural Approach.) Here, it is enough to note that traditional ESL drills and exercises fail on most accounts to provide "comprehensible input" (no message, no need) and, therefore, also fail as a source for acquisition.

Yet, as we have noted already, it is not enough to give "comprehensible input" with the focus on the message. The acquirers must be in a low-anxiety situation. In Dulay and Burt's (1977) terminology, the instructor must strive at all times to lower students' Affective Filter. There are several guidelines that, if followed, will help create low-anxiety situations: (1) the emphasis should be on the use of language in interpersonal communication, i. e., the focus is on the students and their needs and desires as individuals; (2) all attempts at language use should be accepted and encouraged without overt correction of form; and (3) no attempt should be made to force production before acquirers are ready.

Since it is important to accept positively all attempts by children at communication, all use of the native language should be accepted. If a child's native language is not understood by most of the other children and/or the instructor, the instructor should encourage someone (another speaker of that language, an aide, an older sibling, or friend) to help out by conveying the message in English. Such efforts should always be shown acceptance. After the message is understood, the instructor should take advantage of the communication to teach the necessary lexical items to convey that message in English.

In classes in which there is a common first language also understood by the instructor, children should be encouraged to communicate in that language with the instructor responding positively in English. Such child L1 instructor L2 interchange can be very helpful in encouraging acquisition in the pre-production stage.

In addition to acceptance of the use of the primary language, the instructor must accept all imperfect attempts at expression in English. Speech is not improved by overt error correction. Improvement comes in

time if children continue to receive correct input at an appropriate level. However, it is probable that "expansion" is helpful. Expansion means accepting what children have said and incorporating it in correct form in the instructor's response. For example:

Instructor: John, what do you have in your picture?
John: Have dog.
Instructor: Right. Look at John's picture, class. Does he have a dog? Yes, he does. Do *I* have *a* dog in my picture? No, I have a cat.

Teaching Techniques for Natural Acquisition Stages

Pre-production

I have suggested that all acquirers in natural situations begin the acquisition process by learning first how to comprehend the gist of messages from input. Allowing acquirers this "silent" period simplifies the acquisition process in that it allows them a chance to concentrate completely on decoding without worrying about production skills. In other approaches (grammar translation, audiolingual, etc.), students are forced from the beginning to produce language. They must comprehend what is said (no small task), coordinate pronunciation or spelling, attend to correct grammar, and choose the appropriate words, all in addition to formulating the content of what they are communicating. The complexity of this process forces the instructor to simplify radically the interchange both in content and structure, a simplification that is much more extreme than that required for "comprehensible input." Indeed, the content of the communication is normally so simple in these approaches, it is practically vacuous.

By concentrating on the receptive skills and postponing the production skills, these difficulties can be avoided in initial stages. Acquirers can comprehend complex messages more rapidly than they can produce them. In fact, they need only learn to recognize the meaning of key words and attend to extralinguistic contextual clues to be successful at comprehension and thus begin the acquisition process. It appears that a pre-production period is so programmed into the acquisition process that approaches in which it is not allowed actually slow down the acquisition process.

There are several classroom techniques that can be used in the pre-production stage. They involve relating language to either movement, visuals, or both. Let us consider movement first.

The use of movement in language teaching has been proposed most strongly by Asher (1969; 1977; see also Swan, 1980 for classroom suggestions) in a method called Total Physical Response (TPR). In this approach, the instructor gives a command that the students execute in class as a group. Later, after confidence has been built up, commands are given to individuals.

A sample lesson may include the following general techniques. First, the instructor gives a command such as *stand up* and actually executes the command. Then the command is given again, and both the instructor and the students carry out the command together. The third time the command is given the instructor indicates that the students should carry out the command by themselves. If they do not understand what to do this third try, then the instructor again issues the command and executes it with them. After the command has been successfully carried out, a second command is added, such as *turn around*. The sequence is repeated until the children are successful at carrying out the command without the instructor. A third command is added to the first and second and the sequence is repeated until the participants are successful. Then the three are given in random order until there is no difficulty in carrying out the instructions. Attention span for TPR activities varies according to age. Younger children are easily distracted and often attend only to what their classmates do. Older children must be given a wide variety of activities to maintain interest.

TPR requires no verbal response from children; but some do repeat the commands out loud, others do not. What is important is that the children can be successful with this activity without English speech production. All classroom management language can be taught *via* TPR. The following examples are based on Swan (1980):

1. Movement: stand, sit, walk, turn, stop, sing.
2. Body Parts: touch your shoulders, nose, eyes, ears, head. Sample sequence: touch your mouth, sit, touch your shoulders, smile, turn, touch your head, etc.
3. Classroom: touch (point to) the wall, floor, a desk, a table, a window. Sample: touch the wall, walk, sit, touch your eyes, point to the table, touch a chair, sing, etc.

Although TPR is a logical starting technique for the pre-production stage, it is also valuable even after the children are talking for two reasons: (1) body movement helps to form stronger associations between language and its referents than dealing exclusively in the abstract, and (2) increased opportunities for meaningful listening comprehension allows for the utilization of input for acquisition and should therefore always precede speech production.

There are other activities for the pre-production period that can be done with visuals or objects involving *association* of language with particular children in the classroom, thereby facilitating retention of new meanings. The simplest of these techniques is to name objects from the classroom, passing them out to the children one by one. The key question is *Who has the*____? The following is an example of possible "comprehensible input" for beginners. Recall that the children will not comprehend every word, only the messages. (Words essential for comprehension are emphasized.)

> *This is a* pencil. *It's a* yellow *pencil.* Who *wants the yellow pencil?* [*picking student who has raised his/her hand*] *Do you want the pencil, Melissa? Good, here you are. Thank you. Now, class,* who *has the pencil? Does* Melissa *have the pencil?* [*Most of the class will say Melissa.*] *Yes, that's right.* Melissa *has the* pencil.

Note that to comprehend the activity the children need only to comprehend the words *pencil, yellow, who,* and *you* if they attend to the context provided by the instructor's actions and gestures. The same sequence is then repeated with different objects until everyone in the group has an item. Typical input would sound like this:

> Where's *the* small box? [*Students point.*] *Now where's the* large *box?* [*Students point.*] *That's right,* Jaime *has it. Who has the* plastic pencil sharpener? [*Juan.*] *And who has the* chalk? [*Ester.*] *Does* Linda *have a* piece *of* paper? [*Students either nod heads or answer yes/no.*]

This technique with classroom objects can be combined with TPR, as illustrated in the following sequence.

> *Who has the* rubber band? [*Linda.*] *O.K.,* Linda give *your rubber band to* Louis. *Does* Louis *have a* ruler? [*Students nod no.*] *Does he have a* board eraser? [*Students nod yes.*] *O.K.,* Louis, *give your* blackboard eraser *to* Linda.

A combination of TPR and the naming technique should be used until the children can recognize all important words used daily in the classroom situation. It is particularly important for the instructor to realize that children can quite quickly acquire enough vocabulary at a recognition level to follow all instructions and even begin to comprehend some peer talk in the classroom without having produced a single word in English.

The first language functions using TPR and the children's names will have as early goals the identification of classroom objects and people, and the performance of actions in the classroom. Other important goals to be included in early TPR/naming activities are descriptions including comparatives: big, smallest, longer, colors; locations: on the table, in the corner, under the window; numbers: *who has three pencils?*, and so forth.

After the relevant vocabulary and structures needed to deal with classroom actions, entities, and their descriptions are comprehended, some provision must be made to give input involving other activities and entities not in the classroom, while still remaining in the pre-speaking stage. This is most easily accomplished by visuals, especially pictures cut from magazines and/or slides and filmstrips. In fact, a large picture file encompassing all possible semantic fields (colors, animals, foods, dwellings, landscapes, weather, etc.) is an absolute must for a language teacher at all levels of instruction. Such large files are simply not commercially feasible, and instructors will have to make their own individual collections. This is not really as difficult a task if the teacher requests that students each bring to class a picture to talk about; in a short time the instructor will have amassed a large picture file.

Pictures may be used in much the same way as objects. First, the instructor describes the contents of the picture; the complexity of the description will depend on the level of children's comprehension:

> *Here's a new* picture. What *do we see in this picture?* [*without waiting for a response if the students are still pre-production*] A man *and a* woman. *There's a man in this picture and a* woman *with him.* Here's *the* man *and* here's *the* woman. [*pointing*] Who wants *the picture of the* man *and the* woman? [*Johnny raises his hand.*] O.K., *here's the picture of the* man *and the* woman. *This picture is for* Johnny. *Now who has the picture of the* man *and the* woman? [*Johnny.*] *Right.* Johnny *has the picture with the* man *and the* woman.

In this particular activity, the instructor might have as a goal to use words relating to identification of human beings: man, woman, boy, girl, baby, and so forth. The same activity can incorporate family relationships: father, mother, son, daughter, and so forth.

As comprehension increases, the instructor expands the activity to include more complex input. For example, the goal might be to teach comprehension of speech describing common recreation activities, especially those in which the students would engage outside the classroom while at school:

> *I have a new picture.* What *do we see? A* boy *and a* girl. *The* girl *is playing* baseball. *The* boy *is watching her play baseball.* [*Remember, complex words and syntax will not affect the comprehension if the rhythm, intonation, and emphasis coordinate well with the extralinguistic context.*] Who wants *this picture of the little* girl *playing baseball?* Who has *the picture of the little* boy watching *the little girl play baseball?* Where *is the picture with the* baseball?

This technique is limited only by the teacher's imagination and the students' attention span. In a single session, young children usually pay attention to ten pictures or so. Older children may learn to identify up to 20 before they tire of the activity. Often, adolescents or adults can do 30 or more in a single session. The content is also unlimited. One can give "comprehensible input" in such semantic fields as community professions, clothing, food, geography, and with many other items not easily transportable to the classroom.

The pre-production stage can last as long as is needed. Children should not be forced to speak before the acquisition process has had a chance to begin developing. Earlier, I suggested that with rank beginners, this may take from three to six months. In the case of students who have some competence in English, some responses will be made from the beginning. This is not harmful; it should, however, not be taken as a sign that they do not need to receive the input described in this section but rather that the interchanges may take the form described in the next section.

In summary, I have suggested three primary techniques for the pre-production stage: (1) TPR, (2) TPR combined with naming objects, and (3) pictures. Responses to check on comprehension are: (1) movement, (2) pointing, (3) nodding one's head, and (4) saying the name of a student. In the next section, we will consider how using these same techniques can facilitate the transition into speaking.

Transition Into Production

The primary question, of course, is how can the instructor know when children are ready to make the transition into speech production? Theoretically, this question is somewhat difficult to answer; in practice, there are certain techniques that greatly facilitate the instructor's task.

Essentially, the answer is to use the pre-production activities as usual but to integrate slowly two sorts of questions: *yes-no* and *here-there.*

> Everyone *look at this* picture. What *do we* see? [*Without waiting for response.*] *There is a* man looking *in the* window. *Is there also a* woman *in this picture? Do you also* see *a* woman? [*Some students will answer yes.*] *Yes, that's right. There is a* man looking *in the* window, *and a* woman. What *is the* woman doing? [*No pause.*] *Is she* looking *at the* man? [*No.*] *No, she's* reading *a* newspaper.

The idea is not to begin suddenly to ask a series of *yes-no* questions but to continue with the pre-production interactions as usual and from time to time insert a *yes-no* question.

The same observations apply to the *here-there* responses. These questions may be used in the three interaction types. First, they may be used referring to descriptions of the students themselves.

> *What is the* name *of the person in our class with* long blond hair? [*Melinda.*] Where *is she?* [*There.*] *And* where *is the* boy *in the class with* short blond hair? [*There.*] *And* what *'s his* name? What *is the* name *of the person wearing a* blue and white striped shirt *today?* [*Jaime.*] *Is* Jaime *sitting* beside Melinda? [*No.*] *No, he's sitting* beside Al. *Does* Al *have on a pair of* tennis shoes *today?* [*Yes.*] Where *is someone with a pair of* white socks? [*There.*] *Yes, there and there and there.* [*pointing to several*]

When students answer with *here* or *there*, they should point to the object or person being singled out.

Secondly, *here-there* questions may be applied to objects in the classroom or brought to class and passed out to the students.

> Who *has the* eraser? [*Jimmy.*] *And* where *is the* napkin? [*No.*] *Does* Lisa *have the* apple? [*No.*] *Does she have the* orange? [*No.*] *The* grapes? [*Yes.*] Where *is the* banana? [*Here.*] *Yes, I have the* banana.

Finally, *here-there* questions may also be used with pictures.

> Who *has the* picture *of the* man washing *the* dog? [*Gilberto.*] *And* where *is the* picture *of the* father reading *the* book *to his* daughter? [*Here.*] *Does* Luis *have the* picture *of the* little girl *and her* dog? [*Yes.*] *And* where *is the* picture *of the* little boy *with his* dog? [*Here.*]

With *yes-no* and *here-there* questions, the focus is still primarily on extending their recognition vocabulary, and for the most part the children are still in the pre-production stage. It is also important that the students realize they can say words in English without pressure and without fear of being corrected. If the children are reticent to say *yes-no* or *here-there*, it is probable that the children do not yet feel comfortable responding in English. English. This may be because they have not yet acquired enough English, i. e., the instructor should continue with pre-production activities and return later to these sorts of questions. Or, the children may have indeed acquired enough to respond, but do not yet feel comfortable doing so. The remedy, of course, is to try to show the children that all attempts at production, regardless of pronunciation or difficulties with possible errors, will be responded to positively exactly as parents respond positively to childre[illegible]st attempts at production no matter how deformed they

may be.

The next step is to give students the opportunity to say some of the words they can recognize. The easiest way to accomplish this is to ask *either-or* questions embedded in the comprehension interchange exactly in the same way that *yes-no* and *here-there* questions were introduced.

> Who *has on a* red jacket *today?* [*Don.*] *And* where *is there a* yellow shirt? [*There.*] *Is this* shirt red? [*No.*] *Is it* blue?[*No.*] *Is it* green? [*Yes.*] Everyone look at Melinda's socks. *Are they* black *or* blue? [*Blue.*] Look at my socks. *Are they* white *or* red? [*Red.*]

The same sorts of questions apply to pictures:

> Look *at this* picture. *Is there an* animal *in this* picture? [*Yes.*] *Is it a* dog *or a* cat? [*Cat.*] *Is the* cat *on the* roof? [*No.*] *Is it on the* porch? [*Yes.*] *Is there a little* boy *or a little* girl *in this picture?* [*Girl.*] *Is she wearing a* sweater? [*No.*] *A* coat? [*Yes.*] *Is she wearing a* coat *because it's* hot? [*No.*] *No, because it's* cold.

If the first time the instructor introduces *either-or* questions the students are reticent about answering, this is simply a signal to the instructor that production pressures have come too soon and that they have not yet had sufficient opportunity to acquire the lexical items they are being called upon to produce. In general, *either-or* questions are relatively simple since they require only the ability to comprehend the questions and a repetition of one of the lexical items the instructor has just mentioned.

The next step is the production of single words that have not been mentioned in the question. There are two techniques. One is simply to ask the question, *What is this (that)?* (Remember that in early production stages, the students will not usually use articles, i. e., *a, an,* and *the*.) The expected answer to an identification question is a single word; the instructor provides the positive expansion.

> Who *has the* plastic pencil sharpener? [*Phil.*] *Is the* ball *in* front *of* Cheryl? [*Yes.*] Where *is the* ruler? [*There.*] John, show *us what you have. Is that a* truck *or a* car? [*Car.*] Jaime, show *us what you have. What does* Jaime, *have, class?* [*Fireman.*] *That's right,* Jaime *has a* fireman.

The other possibility is to begin a statement or a question and indicate by intonation that someone should try to finish it.

> Andy, hold up *your* picture. Everyone look at *Andy's* picture. *Do you* see *a* car? [*Yes.*] *Is it* blue? [*No.*] *No, it is not* blue, *it's*...[*red*]. *Is there a* man *driving the* car? [*No.*] *There's a*...[*woman*].

Usually the instructor will not even have to decide when the children are ready for the transition into these sorts of questions since they will do it automatically themselves when asked questions with negative answers.

> Luis, show *us your* picture. *Is there an* elephant *in Luis' picture?* [*Students will say no and name the correct animal at the same time.*]

The important thing to remember about the transition period is that it should be considered an extension of the pre-production period in the sense that the primary emphasis is still on the development of listening comprehension abilities through recognition of new lexical items. The following is a suggested list of comprehension goals that should be met before production beyond the limited one-word responses described in this section are encouraged.

1. Following commands for classroom management
2. Names of articles in the classroom
3. Colors/description words for articles in the classroom
4. Words for people; family relationships
5. Descriptions of students
6. Clothing
7. School areas
8. Activities associated with school
9. Names of objects in the school outside the classroom
10. Foods (especially those eaten at school)

The goal is that students be brought as quickly as possible to a level of comprehension such that they can begin to get "comprehensible input" outside the language class, in other classes, on the playground, and outside of school hours. The faster the students begin to understand, the faster the acquisition process will develop.

Early Production Techniques

The basis of the transition to early production is to use more and more questions that can be responded to with a single word. Thus, a conversation about foods meant to encourage early conversation might sound like this:

> Everyone look *at* Linda's picture. *Do you know* what *she has?* [*Cake, piece cake, chocolate cake*] *Right. It's a piece of* cake, *a piece of* chocolate cake. *Does everyone* like *cake?* What *do we* eat *with* cake? [*Milk.*] *Milk? A* glass *of* milk? *Yes, I like to* drink *a* glass *of* milk *with my* cake. [*Note that the answer was not quite correct since the question referred to eating, not drinking; the answer was accepted in any case.*] What *do we* eat *with* cake? *Does anyone* like *to* eat ice cream *with their cake?* [*Several, if not all, hands will go up.*] Jaime, *do you* like ice cream? Who *has a* favorite flavor *of* ice cream? [*Usually someone will volunteer a flavor.*]

The basic interaction is still oriented to listening comprehension, but many more opportunities for the creative production of lexical items are provided.

The transition to two- or three-word phrases is made simply by asking questions that can be responded to with two- or three-word phrases.

> Mark, hold up *your* picture. *Everyone* look *at* Mark's picture. What *is in the picture?* [*Woman.*] *Yes, there's a woman.* What *is she* wearing? [*Red dress.*] *Yes, that's right, she has on a* red dress. *Is she wearing a* hat? [*No.*] *Tell me something about the woman. For example,* look at *her* hair. *She has...*[*brown hair*]. What *is she* doing? [*Reading book.*] *Yes, she's* reading *a* book.

Often, the first two-word phrases produced naturally are adjective-noun combinations (without the articles) and verb-complement combinations (without the articles or subject), whereas subject-verb combinations are normally produced later. Other early two-word combinations include *no* plus verb, pronouns plus a negative (*no me, me no,* etc.), a subject followed by a complement without a predicate, especially if the predicate would be the copula (*that book, chalk* or *table, doll pretty,* etc.). It should be emphasized that during the early production stages, it is counterproductive to stress the production of: (1) articles, (2) demonstratives in correct form (*this, that, these, those*), (3) the copula, (4) the third person singular -s, (5) most pronouns, (6) most auxiliaries, and (7) tag answers (*Yes, he is; No, I'm not,* etc.). Such grammatical items are entirely unnecessary for developing a broad basis for listening comprehension and can be added to students' production abilities much easier later. Indeed, an emphasis on their production will necessarily retard comprehension development.

On the other hand, it is helpful for children to memorize certain patterns or routines without necessarily understanding the meanings of the individual words or their constituent structure: *How are you?, Excuse me, May I be excused?,* and so forth.

One production technique that can include simple routines and patterns is the *circle* question. The pattern is given to the first student who asks a second, the second asking the third, and so forth. Some examples are:

Hello. My name is ____. What is your name?
Hello. How are you? I'm fine, thank you.

What do you have? I have a ____.
What are you doing? I'm ____.

Such activities should not be pushed too soon. If the students have not had enough "comprehensible input," their acquisition system may not yet be built up enough to feel comfortable with this sort of activity. Also, since every student is required to perform, it is best to wait until even the slowest acquirer in the class is ready for the activity. Again, although the entire pattern is given, not too much importance should be placed on absolute correctness in using the articles and other function words.

Older children can usually work well with short, open-ended dialogs:

I

1. Hello, my name is ______.
2. How are you? My name is ______.

II

1. How are you today?
2. ____, thanks, and you?
3. __________.

III

1. Hi. Where are you going?
2. I'm going to ____.
3. What are you going to do?
4. I'm going to ______.

Also useful with older children are guided interviews. The guidelines are distributed in written form and the students work in pairs.

What is your name? My name is ____.
Where do you live? I live in ____.
What do you study? I study ____.

If so desired, guidelines can be included for reporting the information back to the class:

His/her name is ____.
He/she lives in ____.
He/she studies ____

The open-ended sentence can elicit a variety of simple responses and provide input for expanded interactions. The instructor selects a sentence with a single word missing. Students are to fill in the blank with a word of their choice. (See Christensen, 1977.)

After school I'm going to ____.
My parents don't want me to ____.
In my refrigerator there is ____.
I like best to play ____.

Encouraging Speech Production

The underlying assumption of the Natural Approach is that it is not necessary to teach students to speak. Speech will emerge, as we have said, when given the need to speak, an opportunity to express oneself in a low-anxiety situation, and "comprehensible input" to develop the acquired system. The important point with activities to encourage speech is that there be a focus other than language form.

There are several techniques that will result in a focus on messages rather than language. One is to teach course content itself, that is, to use the second language to teach academic content such as mathematics, geography, history, etc., or non-academic content such as physical education or driver's education. Such is the approach used in Canadian "immersion" programs. It should be kept in mind, however, that the teaching of content in the target language will be effective only in the case that the students are able to receive "comprehensible input," i. e., the level of input is appropriate to the level of the students' competence in the target language. With homogeneous groups, e. g., a group of non-English speakers, it is a relatively simple task for the instructor to give input that will be comprehensible for all in the group. If the class is made up of individuals with radically different comprehension levels from, say, native speakers to non-English speakers, maintaining an appropriate level of input for all students is practically impossible. In such cases, grouping is essential.

Besides teaching subject matter, there are three general techniques for diverting attention from language form to its use: games, affective-humanistic activities, and problem-solving tasks.

Games are important, not only because they are fun and provide a period of relaxation for both instructor and children, but, more importantly, because they provide an intense point of concentration, the objective of which is not language. In games, more than in any other activity, the language is obviously a tool or a means of achieving another goal: the game playing itself. Teachers of primary children are, of course, fully aware of how many activities must be made at least "game-like" to maintain interest. It is generally conceded that children acquire language best by having fun. On the other hand, too often game-like activities are used with the idea that their only value is to provide a moment of relaxation. Games are valuable in language acquisition if they provide a rich source of "comprehensible input" and/or provide opportunities for children to express themselves in English in low-anxiety situations. I will not dwell on the use of games since the same games used for native speakers are appropriate also for second-language acquirers if the proper level of input is maintained (see Gasser and Waldman, 1978; Hill and Fielden, 1974).

The second general approach to acquisition activities is to focus the children's attention on themselves. The idea is to involve them affectively with each other and the instructor. This is the focus of Christensen's Affective Learning Activities (Christensen, 1975; 1977), Moscowitz's Humanistic Activities (Moscowitz, 1978), and especially Galyean's Confluent Education (Galyean, 1976). Christensen (1977) uses the term affective to mean "the set of personal experiences, values, feelings, opinions, interests, imaginings, fantasies, already stored in an individual's mind" (p. ix). Christensen (1977) suggests eight models for classroom activities: situations, open-ended sentences, preference ranking, interviews, public opinion, crazy sentences, mini-poems, and dialogs. Although not all models are appropriate for all levels, they are definitely worth consideration, since in most cases the models are very adaptable to a wide variety of classroom situations.

Moscowitz (1978) gives 120 humanistic (or awareness) exercises that "attempt to blend what the student feels, thinks, knows with what he is learning in the target language. Rather than self-denial being the accepted way of life, self-actualization and self-esteem are the ideals the exercises pursue" (p. 2). The aim at involving the students in an activity that is intrinsically so interesting that they do not focus on language *per se* and, in addition, are designed to allow students "to be themselves, to accept themselves, and to be proud of themselves" (p. 2).

Not all types of humanistic activities will appeal to all students and instructors. But with some adaptations, most of the suggestions are viable at all levels of instruction. Moscowitz (1978) includes suggestions for activities that lead students to use language in talking about relating to others, discovering myself, my strengths, my self-image, expressing my feelings, my memories, sharing myself, my values, the arts and me, and me and my fantasies. I will describe two such activities as examples of the variety of possibilities:

> Suppose you weren't you. *Tell the children that they are to pretend that they are a member of the category you mention. They are to write down what they are and why they chose that particular thing to be. For example, if you were a season of the year, which one would you like to be? If you were a musical instrument, which one would you like to be? Why? (pp. 68-70)*
>
> The gift I've always wanted. *Imagine that it is your birthday. You will receive a special gift. You can decide what the gift will be. Write what you want to have more than anything else on a slip of paper. You do not have to sign your name, but I will collect the papers as you enter the classroom tomorrow. (pp. 148-149)*

As the instructor reads the gift suggestions to the class, they are to note down three other gifts from the list they would also like to have. Use group discussions as a follow-up.

Galyean (1976) suggests activities that allow for the sharing of feelings, interests, personal imagery, values, attitudes as well as ideas, opinions, and impersonal descriptions. Her "Confluent Education" techniques are to represent the flowing together of cognitive, affective, and interactive goals and objectives into one learning experience. The following are some suggested activities adapted from Galyean (1976):

> Desires. *It's your birthday. Your parents ask you what you want. Use the pattern. I want ______.*
>
> Preferences. *I will give you several choices and I want you to decide which you prefer. I will call out two items and you will move to the left or right of the room according to which you like best. Which do you like best?*

Right	Left
tacos	*pizza*
hamburgers	*hot dog*
movies	*television*

> Abilities. *I will tell you I know how to do certain things. Some will be true and some false. You are to guess which I really know how to do. (Then each child gets to suggest something he or she knows how to do. The class guesses whether it is true.)*
>
> Feelings. *I will give you a "feeling" word. When I do this, I want you to think of where you are when you have this feeling. Use the following pattern: I am* (feeling) *when I am* (place).
>
> My room. *I imagine that you are in your own room. You are taking the class on a guided tour of your room at home. You are telling us what you have there. Here is your model. This is my room. I have ______.*

A third approach to focusing students' attention on content rather than language form involves traditional problem solving. The techniques can range from genuine problem solving to simply consulting tables, graphs, maps, and charts for information. Genuine problem solving involves setting up situations that require students to predict an outcome. Especially popular are short mystery stories of the "Who-done-it" type. Also useful are language riddles.

The use of tables, graphs, charts, and other displays of information is becoming quite popular with textbook writers, and this technique is used in most newer ESL texts (see, for example, Yorkey *et al.*, 1977; Olsen, 1977). The idea is that the students are given a display of information they use to answer questions. With younger children, the charts should be simple, involving primarily pictures and symbols at first. For example, one chart could consist of children wearing different-colored clothing placed on the left side of the page and various colored toys on the right. The idea is to draw a line from a child to a toy whose color matches the children's clothing. The verbal interaction will be similar to the following:

> *What's the* name *of the little* boy *playing with the ball? What* color *is the* ball? *What* color *is the boy's* shirt? *Do they* match? *Is there* anyone *in our group with a red shirt?* [*Paul.*] *Paul, do you have a red ball?* [*No.*] *What color is your ball?*

In all cases, chart work and puzzle solving serves only as an initial focus after which the conversation naturally shifts to the children themselves.

Older children can work with more complicated charts of information. A copy of *TV Guide* could serve as a basis for the following sort of conversation:

> *What* time *is the news on channel 7? Find your* favorite *program. What is it? What* time *is your* favorite *program on? What programs are on at* 6 *p.m.? Which would you* choose? *Why?*

Timetables are also useful. For example, using a bus timetable, appropriate questions might be:

> *When does the first* bus *leave for* Los Angeles? *What bus must I take if I want to be in* San Diego *for a meeting at* 11 *a.m.?*

A major temperature chart with average temperatures of major world cities could be used with questions like:

> *Which city is the best for visiting the* beach *in* January? *Which city is the* coldest *in* March? *Which city would you* like *to live in? Why?*

Also useful are advertisements from newspapers or magazines. One can use advertisements for automobiles, clothing, food, employment,

housing, and so forth. The discussion can be oriented factually. For example, looking at a number of automobile ads, the instructor might ask questions like:

> *What is the* most *expensive car for sale? Which is the* least *expensive? Are there more* foreign *or* American *cars for sale under $6,000? Which of these cars would you choose to buy?*

The last question is probably the most important feature since it takes off from the material and focuses on personal reactions or opinions. Again, it should be stressed that all displays of information should be used as a basis for subsequent personalization.

Information displays can also be constructed using the students as sources of information. For example, the goal of the following activity is to construct with the children a chart of daily activities. Each child thinks of one thing he/she does each day. Each activity should be different. The names and the activities are written one by one in chart form on the chalkboard. (Instructor may have the children also copy if appropriate.) After the chart is finished, the instructor asks questions like:

> What *does Melissa do? Who* washes *her* dog? *Who* brushes *his* teeth? *What does* Linda *do?*

The chart could be made more complex by adding a third dimension such as days of the week:

> *What does Mark do on* Mondays? *Does Jane* clean *her room on* Thursdays *or on* Fridays? *Who works* hardest *on Saturday?*

In summary, then, in the Natural Approach we use any sort of activity in which children can focus on something other than language forms. Three main categories of activities that will focus attention on message rather than form have been suggested: games, affective-humanistic activities, and problem-solving tasks.

Reading and Writing in the Natural Approach

I will not discuss the teaching of reading and writing *per se* since these are essentially a part of the development of CALP; instead, I will comment on the integration of reading and writing in the first stages of acquisition, i. e., the pre-production stages.

In the case of full bilingual programs, as students are receiving their first interaction with English, they will also be learning to read in their native language. The listening comprehension and early production skills in English are then, in a sense, a part of a "reading readiness" phase for eventual English reading. During the listening activities, the instructor may, whenever appropriate, write key lexical items on the chalkboard.

However, at no point should the success of the communication depend on the ability to read what has been written on the board. In addition, extensive writing of the target language should probably be delayed until the students are fairly comfortable with the spelling patterns of their native languages. Normally, if the students have learned to read in their native language, simply writing words in English on the board as they are introduced in listening comprehension sections is enough to begin the reading process. Later, of course, it would be appropriate for the instructor to work intensively with reading and spelling skills.

In situations in which the children are not receiving reading instruction in their native language (e. g., because of a number of different native languages in the group), then the pre-production and early production stages serve the same functions as the reading readiness stage for native speakers. However, this listening stage will have to last longer than is necessary with native speakers. During this stage the instructor can, when he/she feels the students are cognitively ready, begin to write key lexical items on the chalkboard. This amounts to simply allowing students to associate written words with the words they are hearing, without trying to work on phonetic skills. At first, this amounts to the "look-see" approach to the teaching of reading. However, this is only true initially; later when the students' comprehension is developed enough, the teacher may begin with normal phonic and syllabic approaches (Hatch, 1978).

The Use of Continua in the Natural Approach

Ideally, the Natural Approach would be used with a pre-planned continuum with the following characteristics: (1) goals are formulated in terms of communicative skills; (2) structure and form are subordinated to the particular communicative and academic goals; (3) the continuum begins with listening comprehension activities; and (4) transitional activities are provided between listening, speaking, reading, and writing. In fact, it should be clear that the Natural Approach cannot be easily used without clearly defined goals for the language course.

Many continua in use today can be adapted for use with the Natural Approach. There are usually two major problems that must be addressed, however: (1) listening and speaking activities are often not separated either in presentation or evaluation; and (2) communicative and grammatical goals are mixed together with no indicated relationship. Thus, the instructor will have to revise the continuum and its evaluation guides so that each goal has a listening phase that begins long before speech production is required. Evaluation also must record three stages: (1) aural comprehension, (2) oral production of utterances that convey messages, and (3) oral production target constructions with grammatical accuracy.

Let us look at an example. The following is a "goal" structure from a continuum used in many California ESL programs:

"Where is the (pet)?"
"Here/there it is."

First, we must determine the communicative goal. In this case, children are to learn to locate animals. This involves two lexical sets: common animals and locative expressions.

The first step is to devise an activity in which the children learn to recognize the names of animals. One way is to use pictures or miniaturized stuffed or plastic animals and pass them out to the children. Then the instructor asks questions such as, "Who has the dog?" and "Who has the cat?" After they recognize the animal words, the instructor can then hide each animal someplace in the room and ask the children to find the animals. When they find one, they must say, "*here* (or *there*) it is." In a separate activity, the instructor can use *either/or* questions to supply opportunities to distinguish *here/there:* Where is the black kitty? Here or there? [pointing]. Children answer with a single word.

Let us examine a more complex example.

"Do you want any/some (breakfast)?"
"No, I don't want any (breakfast)."

The goal is obviously grammatical: The use of *any/some* in questions with the use of *any* in negative responses. Such a goal *must* be recast into communicative terms before it serves any real purpose. In this case, we could adopt a goal of accepting or refusing offers of food. The instructor can ask the children to pretend to be eating lunch. The instructor offers a picture of food or a plastic replica, asking each child, "Do you want ______?" "Do you want a ______?" "Do you want any ______?" according to the appropriate usage. Each child should respond either, "No, thank you" or "Yes, please." (Note that the response suggested on the continuum is absurd since, "No, I don't want any ______." is *not* a normal response to the question, "Do you want some ______?"

The above activity serves for using *some/any/a* in a form that provides students with "comprehensible input." A similar, but far more complex activity can be devised to elicit production of *some/any/a.* The instructor could, for example, pass out pictures of various foods to each child. The question is, "Do you have any/some/a ______?" If the answer is negative, the student responds, "No, but I have some/a ______."

It is important to realize that the comprehension of the meaning of sentences with *any/some/a* is relatively simple, although their production in correct contexts can be very difficult. This is an excellent example of why evaluation of children's progress must separate comprehension from production skills.

Evaluation in the Natural Approach

Evaluation of second-language students must be based on the previously established goals. It is convenient to focus on two general areas: (1) interpersonal communication skills, which consist of mostly listening and speaking and Cummins' BICS; and (2) academic skills, which consist of all four skills of listening, speaking, reading, and writing and Cummins' CALP. The specific goals may be defined in terms of the students' ages and their immediate needs. In any case, it is important that the skills be evaluated, at least in part, separately. It is especially important that for beginning students the listening comprehension skill be considered the most important for evaluation of students' progress, not the ability to produce.

The following are some sample goals for listening comprehension skills for beginners acquiring BICS:

1. Can follow classroom directions;
2. Can point to classroom items;
3. Can distinguish items according to color, shapes, sizes, and other characteristics;
4. Can point to people (including family relationships);
5. Can distinguish people according to physical and psychological descriptions (sick, happy, sad); and
6. Can act out comon school activities.

Oral production goals for beginners might include the following:

1. Can give classroom commands to peers;
2. Can exchange common greetings;
3. Can name classroom objects;
4. Can describe classroom objects in terms of color, size, etc.;
5. Can describe people, including physical and psychological descriptions; and
6. Given an action picture of a common recreational activity, can describe what is happening.

Oral production goals are always formulated in terms of the ability to communicate messages. However, each production goal usually implies the use of a particular language structure to convey that message. For example, Goal 6 above implies the use of the present progressive, i.e., the auxiliary *be* usually in contracted form followed by a present participle (-*ing*). In the evaluation of speech production, the instructor should note

two things: (1) ability to transmit a message, and (2) structural accuracy in transmitting that message. Thus, in this case, the evaluation consists of three sub-parts:

1. Ability to describe common recreational in-progress activities,
2. Ability to use the auxiliary *to be* correctly, and
3. Ability to use the present participle (-*ing*) forms correctly.

Thus, at one stage, students may well be able to transmit the message, but may not yet use either the auxiliary or the participle. Later, they may have acquired the participle but still only use the auxiliary sporadically. Finally, both will be acquired.

Although progress in grammatical accuracy should be noted, the overall evaluation and assessment of students acquiring BICS should be based almost exclusively on the ability to transmit messages. The acquisition of grammar in early stages is so variable from student to student that although progress can be measured, it should not be given central importance. Only in extreme cases (low grammatical accuracy after several years of "comprehensible input") should remedial work be considered.

Conclusion

In conclusion, the Natural Approach is intended as a means of developing high levels of communicative skills among second-language acquirers. The approach contains at least the following features:

1. Behavioral objectives defined in terms of communicative contexts (situational-functional).
2. Activities to meet objectives are presented in two-stage format: comprehension/production.
3. Children are given a pre-production period that is as long as necessary.
4. Language activities focus on content, not form.
5. Children have opportunities to express themselves in low-anxiety situations.

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Reading and the Minority Language Student

By Orestes I. Crespo

Reading instruction in English and in the home language of minority language children is a component of most bilingual education programs. However, questions remain concerning the teaching of overall reading skills, such as reading speed, vocabulary development, and comprehension. One of the major concerns of teachers working with limited-English-proficient (LEP) students is the appropriate sequence to follow in the introduction of literacy skills in the second language. Should reading in English be introduced after literacy in the native language has been mastered? What degree of oral language proficiency should be achieved by the minority language student before reading in English is introduced?

Native Language Literacy

Except in cases where the native language does not exist in written form, such as Hmong, most bilingual education programs either introduce native language literacy first or introduce reading in both the native language and English concurrently (Weber 1976). Educators usually agree, however, that learning to read in two languages simultaneously may be difficult initially. Instead, most bilingual programs promote the introduction of native language literacy before teaching reading in the second language.

In a review of the literature, Fradd (1982) found concensus toward methodologies which rely upon the development of literacy skills in the native language. Fradd notes the longitudinal study at the Rock Point Navajo Indian school in Arizona where prior to 1971, fifth and sixth grade students were two years below national norms in reading in English despite intensive instruction in English as a second language (ESL). Since 1971 when a language program for teaching Navajo literacy was first introduced, English reading skills have improved to match national norms.

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In a more recent study, Mace-Matluck, et al. (1983) report on research involving native language literacy among Cantonese-speaking students. Results indicated that when native language literacy skills were substantially developed, such skills were positively related to the development of English literacy skills. Miller (1981) describes a bilingual program in Mexico which also promotes the teaching of native language literacy before reading in a second language is introduced. In this case, the native language is usually an indigenous language and the second language is Spanish. If research appears to indicate that native language literacy should come first, when should reading in the second language take place?

English Language Literacy

In their discussion of reading in the bilingual classroom, Goodman, et al. (1979) identify major assumptions that "have dominated curricular suggestions in bilingual literacy programs." One of these assumptions supposes that children must have oral proficiency in the language to be read before they can learn to read in that language. Goodman, et al. agree that, indeed, oral language development is of major importance; however, they propose that language is motivated by functional needs and "reading need not follow oral development, but may be parallel to it and contribute to general language control." Regarding ESL instruction, Sainz and Goretti (1981) suggest the use of a Piagetian reading method for LEP students, which allows the children the opportunity to perceive and conceptualize aspects of the English language, thus nurturing and motivating the students toward positive interactions.

Feeley (1983) acknowledges that while language arts models in the past stressed listening and speaking before reading, more current approaches emphasize an earlier introduction to reading since there is little research evidence supporting a delay of reading instruction. This is especially useful information in those schools where bilingual education or formal ESL instruction is not available for LEP students, such as in areas with too few LEP students for a formal program or with minority language students from a low incident language group for which native language instructors and materials may not be available.

Recent research findings in English language literacy are summarized by Huddleston (1984) as follows: (1) even children who speak little or no English are reading some of the print in their environment and are using the reading to increase their English; (2) ESL learners are able to read English before they have completed oral control of the language; (3) reading comprehension in a second language, as in a first, is influenced by the background knowledge and the cultural framework that the reader brings to the text; (4) as in the first language, writing in the second language interacts with reading--the two processes complement each other; and (5) the processes of writing, reading, speaking, and listening in a second language are interrelated and interdependent.

Language Experience Approach to Literacy in ESL

Literacy in a second language is better achieved when the written material is congruent with the reader's oral language repertoire (Chu-Chang 1981). The repertoire need not be representative of complete fluency in the second language. One approach that has been suggested as an introduction to second language literacy is the language experience approach (Allen and Dorris 1963). Kwiat (1984) explains the process used in this approach as one in which the LEP student is presented with an experience or concept and introduced to corresponding vocabulary. Then the student is guided to talk about that experience. The teacher records what the student says and later transcribes the student's own language for review by the student at a later date. The reading vocabulary can be directly linked with concepts and oral language recently encountered by the LEP student (Feeley 1983). Teachers often express the concern that allowing children to dictate and to read grammatically incorrect sentences may reinforce bad grammar and hinder mastery of standard English. However, researchers, such as Rigg (1981), have demonstrated that first draft language experience stories may be brought out again after the students have acquired a greater oral language proficiency and the students correct previous errors based on their increased knowledge of English.

Since the language experience approach does not focus on individual basic skills in literacy, such as the ability to decode high frequency sight words or the ability to generalize about the phonological patterns found in English words, other more sophisticated approaches should be utilized by the teachers of LEP students once the introduction into literacy in the second language has been introduced (Kwiat 1984).

Two conclusions may be reached about literacy in two languages. The first is that achieving literacy in the native language may help the LEP student develop English reading skills faster and more efficiently. The second is that reading in the second language may begin before complete oral language proficiency has been reached by the LEP student. Decisions, however, on when to begin instruction in the second language are still at the discretion of individual educators. Cummins (1980) strongly suggests that true equal education will result only from programs that optimize minority language children's potential by promoting literacy skills in both languages.

RESOURCES

International Reading Association

The International Reading Association is a professional organization for individuals involved in the teaching or supervising of reading programs (see Organizations page 52). The organization promotes research in developmental, corrective, and remedial reading. It publishes journals, monographs, and brochures and disseminates information on the reading process and teaching methods. Among the journals published are Journal of Reading and Lectura y Vida.

Literacy Volunteers Of America

Literacy Volunteers of America provides assistance in implementing literacy programs at the local, state, and national levels and in training volunteer tutors (see Organizations page 52). It disseminates pertinent publications and information, including training manuals, and acts as a referral service for potential tutors and students.

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Kan Yu Ret an Rayt en Ingles: Children Become Literate in English as a Second Language

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Current research on second language development in children has provided teachers and curriculum planners with multiple possibilities for innovations in classroom practice. In the case of oral language development in ESL, this research has made significant contributions both to classroom teaching and to the materials being published for classroom use. Classroom practices in literacy for ESL children, however, have not kept up with research. This article presents several general findings from recent research on second language reading and writing development in children. These findings suggest: that even children who speak virtually no English read English print in the environment; that ESL learners are able to read English with only limited control over the oral system of the language; that the experiential and cultural background of the ESL reader has a strong effect on reading comprehension; that child ESL learners, early in their development of English, can write English and can do so for various purposes. This article also presents classroom applications for each finding.

INTRODUCTION

During the last ten to fifteen years, significant studies in second language development have provided researchers and practitioners with important information about how children learn a second language. Often this information has been applied to ESL teaching practices and curriculum development. Unfortunately, many of the innovations in teaching children have been limited to or have focused upon oral language (Gonzalez-Mena 1975, Urzua 1981, Ventriglia 1982), with less consideration given to innovation in literacy (reading and writing) practices. In spite of recent research that presents findings with implications for practice, children's ESL literacy is dominated by materials and procedures that have been created with the following perspective in mind: that ESL reading and writing should be strictly controlled so that errors do not occur; that children should be asked to read and write only what they have practiced orally in formal lessons; that early experiences with English reading should consist of "linguistic" materials that emphasize phonically and orthographically regular words; that there should be a time gap between the presentation of oral and written forms of English; that writing, especially at the initial stages, should consist of copying, filling in blanks, and taking dictation rather than creating one's own messages; that reading and writing should always follow listening and speaking instruction, with writing always following reading. Reading materials such as *The Miami Linguistics Readers* (Robinett, Bell, and Rojas 1970), the *Crane Reading System—English* (Crane 1977), and the reading/writing components of programs such as *Steps to English* (Kernan 1983), *English Around the World* (Marquardt, Miller, and Housman 1976), and *YES English for Children* (Mellgren and Walker 1977) exemplify this perspective. Aspects of this position have been articulated in methods textbooks such as those written by Ching (1976), Donoghue and Kunkle (1979), and Finocchiaro (1974), among others. Elley (1981) has suggested that the dominance of these kinds of materials and approaches may be traced to the influence of the audiolingual school of language teaching, whose methods and principles Elley sees in practice in elementary second language classrooms and curricula around the world.

Until recently, the perspective delineated above reflected our understanding of second language literacy development in children. However, in recent years researchers have made exciting discoveries about the growth of reading and writing abilities in children learning a second language. Many of these findings, in addition to coming from descriptive and classroom-based research, have direct implications for and applications to classroom practice. Without intending to reject outright all previous notions or efforts of the past, this article offers some alternative views of second language literacy development in children. This article, then, has two purposes: 1) to provide an overview of some findings of recent research in second language literacy (reading and writing), and 2) to provide some examples of how these findings speak to classroom practice.

RECENT RESEARCH FINDINGS

Finding/Generalization 1

Even children who speak no or very little English are reading some of the print in their environment and are using that reading to increase their English. In the United States, non- or limited English-speaking children find themselves surrounded by English outside of school. These learners acquire a lot of English and often begin reading English from living and coping with English in their daily lives (K. Goodman, Y. Goodman, and Flores 1979).

A few years ago, in several settings, Y. Goodman investigated the print awareness of preschool, supposedly preliterate children, both native English speakers and non- or limited English-speaking children from such native language backgrounds as Arabic, Navajo, and Spanish. She found that even children who were virtually non-speakers of English in such isolated areas as the Navajo Nation in Northern Arizona could read items such as *Crest*, *Coca Cola*, *McDonalds*, *Cheerios*, *Wonder Woman*, *Dracula*, and *Spider Man* (Y. Goodman 1980, Y. Goodman and Altwerger 1981, K. Goodman, Y. Goodman, and Flores 1979). They were able to do this because these items from the media and from real life were salient for them. Older non-English-speaking children, too, have demonstrated an ability to read such environmental print items, even though they have resided in the United States for only a month or two (Hudelson 1981). An example comes from a case study of a third grader who, when asked by the researcher about English print in his neighborhood, could tell her that a sign that said *BEWARE OF THE DOG* meant "que no se acerque al perro" ('don't get close to the dog') and that *TVs FIXED HERE* meant "que se compongan televisiones aquí" ('televisions fixed here').

What does this mean for classroom instruction? For teachers who say that children are reading only because they see the entire label and therefore are not really reading, it means little. But for ESL teachers who take this as evidence that children are interacting with and learning from their environment, a host of instructional possibilities appear. Some examples appear below.

A first-grade teacher took her ESL children on a walking field trip around the school. The children had received no formal English reading instruction at the time of this activity. The children's job was to point out, read, and write down all of the English words they could find. If the children were unable to read the print they discovered, the teacher read the word for them. Considerable English vocabulary teaching occurred as the children developed their lists. The teacher read several words to the class (for example, *fire extinguisher*). Others she pronounced with standard English phonology and explained their meaning in English (*custodian* and *caution*). In some cases one child would read for the others. Back in the classroom, the lists were reread and the items were then used in categorizing activities.

In two first and second-grade classrooms, as a substitute for structured ESL time, teachers set up a class grocery store, requesting that students bring in items for the store (in the form of empty boxes, cartons, tin cans, and so on), identify the items, arrange them on shelves as a grocer would, and roleplay grocer and customers. These children also had not received any formal English reading instruction. All transactions had to be conducted in English, and the customers had to write out shopping lists before they went to the store in order to be able to buy their groceries. On the lists that the children wrote and read were such items as *Coors Lite beer*, *pizza*, *soup*, *milk*, and *gum*.

In a combination third-fourth grade, the teacher assigned students to bring in product labels, identify the products, and then describe them orally and in writing. One young writer, who read her paper to the class, described Trix cereal as soft (*sofet*), crunchy (*cranchi*), and lemon and orange flavored (*flavert limen and oreng*).

In a junior high school class, some advanced ESL students working in small groups invented their own products and created commercial messages. Actual television commercials were used for listening/speaking and reading activities before the students came up with their own inventions. One of the commercial messages is reproduced as Figure 1.

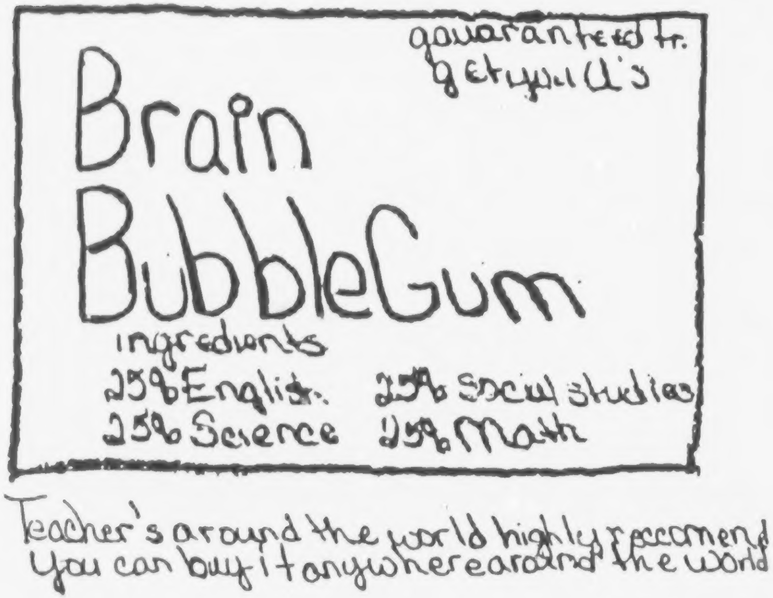
These are a few examples of ways in which ESL teachers have made use of their students' interaction with English environmental print. These teachers have taken advantage of what students already know (and are interested in) in their second language; they have validated this knowledge by bringing it into school and have used it as part of literacy instruction. This instruction has raised children's awareness of themselves as English readers while simultaneously developing and revealing their English vocabularies.

Finding/Generalization 2

ESL learners are able to read English before they have complete oral control of the language. As in a first language, reading in a second language is a psycho-sociolinguistic process, an interaction between reader, print, and the reading situation, an experience in which readers build meaning by interaction with print and by utilizing in these interactions their own background of experiences and personal information as well as their developing knowledge of the language (Grove 1981). Using their language and experiential background, readers predict their way through a text. As ESL readers build meaning, their own levels of language development and their own background influence what is created.

A clear view of the second language reader as a predictor presents itself when *miscue analysis*, a reading research technique originally developed to examine the oral reading of native speakers of English (K. Goodman and Burke 1973), is utilized. Miscue analysis requires that a person read a story orally and then retell the contents. Both the retelling and the reader's miscues (deviations from the printed text) are examined. In recent years, several researchers have used miscue analysis with ESL readers (Barrera 1978, Clarke 1981, Connor 1981, Devine 1981, K. Goodman and Y. Goodman 1978, Mott 1981, Rigg 1977). Their research has yielded the following generalizations: 1) like native speakers, ESL readers make miscues when they read English; 2) some of these miscues change the meaning of what is being read, while others do not; 3) those miscues that change the meaning of what is being read are more likely to be self-corrected than those that do not; 4) some of the miscues that ESL readers make reflect the reader's English language development; 5) the ESL reader may be able to demonstrate more understanding of material that has been read if retelling is done in the native language rather than in English; 6) ESL readers do not need to pronounce the surface phonology of what they are reading as a native speaker

FIGURE 1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would in order to understand what they are reading; and 7) ESL readers demonstrate greater comprehension of material that is culturally close to their own experiences.

These findings suggest several applications. First, ESL teachers do not need to wait until children are highly fluent in English before offering reading materials. Care must be taken in selecting the kinds of materials to be offered, but reading can and should begin fairly soon after children begin studying English. Second, teachers should avoid judging children's ESL reading ability on the basis of the number of oral reading errors the children make and/or on the basis of heavily accented reading. Informal reading inventories, widely used in elementary school classrooms (see Harris and Sipay 1979), suggest that teachers total the number of oral reading errors in order to determine whether a child is able to read certain material. Applying this practice to ESL readers can be especially misleading since ESL children make many surface errors that do not affect understanding. Rather, the teacher should consider the child's ability to talk about what has been read. Third, teachers should avoid interrupting ESL children while they are reading in order to correct them. Allowing children to make pronunciation errors does not reinforce incorrect English, and the practice of interrupting and correcting may actually disrupt rather than facilitate the readers' construction of meaning from a text. Fourth, in working with ESL children reading English, it is crucial to focus on comprehension of text material. An appropriate beginning is to encourage children to retell as much as possible of what they have read. Specific questions may also be asked, but it is important that the children do as much of the talking as possible in response to a general request to "tell me everything you can about what you just read." Children's retellings often reveal what they *do not* understand as well as what they do. This information is valuable to the teacher in returning the children to the story to re-examine parts of the text. And fifth, when possible (either through the teacher or through peers), ESL children should be allowed to discuss texts in the native language as well as in English. In this way the teacher may get a more accurate picture of what children understand.

Finding/Generalization 3

Reading comprehension in a second language, as in a first, is influenced by the background knowledge and the cultural framework that the reader brings to the text (Grove 1981). Even quite proficient ESL readers recall more from a text based on their own culture than they do from a text based on a foreign culture (Steffensen, Joag-dev, and Anderson 1979, Steffensen and Joag-dev 1981). In two studies of ESL readers, Johnson (1981, 1982) found that simplification of vocabulary and syntax were less important factors in ESL readers' comprehension of a text than the cultural contents of the passage being read. She also found that real cultural experiences prior to reading (as contrasted to formal study of vocabulary items) had a positive effect on ESL students' reading comprehension of a passage linked to the cultural experience.

The classroom applications of these findings are several. First, whenever possible the teacher should select reading materials that reflect the children's cultural and experiential background. Children's comprehension also may be enhanced if the teacher utilizes the children's experiences as background preparation for reading. Making the children aware of what they already know about a topic contributes positively to subsequent reading comprehension. Second, as often as possible, if children are reading culturally unfamiliar material, teachers need to build a background of knowledge prior to reading. Ideally this will take the form of a real experience (as in Johnson's example of the Halloween carnival). Knowledge (and language) may also be built through television, films or filmstrips, demonstrations, and materials shared with children. Third, instructional strategies that do not depend upon prepared texts but which utilize the readers' cultural and experiential backgrounds are also appropriate. Two such strategies are the use of key words and language experience stories.

Developed by Ashton-Warner (1963) as a way of teaching non-English-speaking Maori children to read English, *key words* are words that individual children decide they want to learn to read because the words are personally important to them. On a daily basis, the teacher elicits a key word from each child. The teacher writes down each child's word on a card, which the child then retains in order to read the words over, copy them, make a picture of them, read them to others, write sentences with them, and so on. Since Ashton-Warner first proposed the use of key words, the practice has been used effectively in the United States as a beginning reading strategy for both native speakers of English and ESL children (Veatch 1979).

Language experience stories also utilize the students' knowledge and cultural background as well as their developing language (Murphy 1980, Feeley 1979, 1983). Research has shown that the language experience approach is an effective method for teaching reading both to native and non-native speakers of English (Colvert 1973, Hall 1979, Mallett 1977). Basically, the students have an experience which they discuss, after which they dictate to the teacher (scribe) what they want written about the experience. The teacher listens and transcribes the story exactly as the children dictate it. Because both the contents of the stories and the language used come from the students, these stories are especially comprehensible, an important factor in working with ESL students.

Rigg (1981) has utilized language experiences with ESL learners of all ages. Using wordless picture books as the stimulus (experience), she has found that students are willing and able to use their background knowledge to create stories. To address the concern that accepting children's stories as dictated reinforces their incorrect language patterns, Rigg has demonstrated that first draft stories may be used as the basis for oral language activities (diagnosing which structures to practice from their dictations) as well as for revising and editing by the students. In the example below, a Russian-speaking student dictated two stories using picture stimuli. Each of the stories was subsequently corrected by the student without being prompted to do so.

First Effort	**Self-Revision**
Two ladies playing in tennis. In the hand they holding the rackets. One from they is coming to the ball.	Two ladies are playing in tennis. In the hand they are holding the rackets. One from they is running to the ball.
The boy live in the ranch. He help for his parents. He give the food for the cocks. . . The cows eat the grass and he watch for them.	The boy lives on the ranch. He helps his parents. He gives the food for the cocks. . . The cows eat the grass and he watches them.

(Rigg 1981:85)

The second drafts suggest that many ESL learners are able to reflect on the form of what they have said and have seen written down and that they are able to make revisions as they learn more English. The drafts also are useful to the ESL teacher as a way of documenting student learning.

Students learning English as a second language, then, show teachers both that they are able to read and understand some material in English that they do not yet control orally and that they are able to read English when the material comes from within themselves, that is, when the approach used is an organic one that relies on what the students know rather than on what they do not know.

Finding/Generalization 4

As in a first language, writing in a second language interacts with reading. The two processes are closely related and complement each other (Edelsky 1982, Staton 1981). Bissex (1980), Chomsky (1971), and Read (1975) have demonstrated that for some young native speakers of English, writing—the composing of one's own message—precedes formal reading. These messages generally are characterized by a variety of unconventional aspects (for example, spelling and segmentation) which signify that the young composers use their existing knowledge to solve their writing problems. These researchers have also shown that these young writers read their own creations, often before they read conventional English texts. Bissex discovered that Paul, the child in her longitudinal case study, used his writing as his personal reading material for several months.

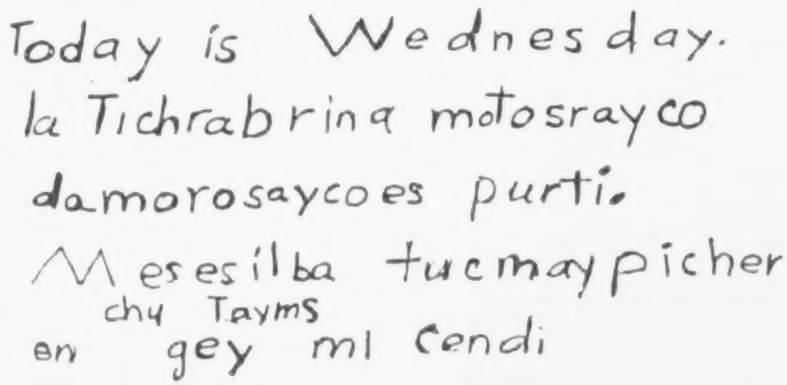
What has been found for native speakers is also being shown to be true for child second language learners. For some ESL children, written expression in English may precede formal reading instruction (Edelsky 1982). For some, their English writing forms their first reading (Rigg 1981). For others, writing may help other school work (Searfoss, Smith, and Bean 1981, Staton 1981).

The classroom application is this: we should encourage ESL learners to write, to express themselves in writing as well as orally, and to use written expression as one means of developing English. The previous examples have shown that ESL speakers can write shopping lists and product descriptions based on environmental print. Other kinds of writing also have been encouraged by teachers who consider writing an integral part of second language development.

Figure 2 is a journal entry from a first-grade child enrolled in a bilingual program where initial literacy, including a great deal of writing, was in Spanish (see Edelsky 1981, 1982, 1983). With no formal literacy instruction in English, one day late in the spring the child produced this journal entry in English when the teacher asked the class if they could write in their journals in English rather than in Spanish.

In reading the entry, the influence of Spanish on English is obvious. But looking beyond the invented spelling, one is struck both by the ability of this child to express himself in English and to reveal what he already knows about English, without having received training in that language. This child was not afraid to try to write in English, and he read what he wrote.

Older ESL students may express themselves more easily in writing than orally. The following journal entry was written by a



Today is Wednesday.
la Tichrabrina motosrayco
damorosaycoes purti.
Mesesilba tucmaypicher
chy Tayms
en gey mI cendi

Today is Wednesday.
La teacher bring a motorcycle
The motorcycle is pretty.
Mrs. Silva took my picture
two times
and gave me candy

fourth grader described by her teacher as extremely shy in class. At the time of the writing, this child had been in the United States less than two years. In her writing this child expressed several personal feelings that perhaps she was unwilling or unable to say out loud. Her incomplete mastery of English did not prevent her from using her journal to express some things that were on her mind.

> Some girl act beautiful cause shake their but and has feather back hear and act big. And they act smart ibe day I was playing woth Pola and somebody called me to the teetotter and told me not to play with pola because she would make me black. I feel that are are bad becuase they dress in tight pants tight shirt becuase they act that they could beet up everibody
>
> (Spelling, punctuation, and word choice have not been changed.)

In middle school settings, interactive journal writing has been used to promote student expression (Staton, Shuy, and Kreeft 1982). In this practice, students use daily journals to write to their teacher about whatever they choose to discuss. The teacher writes back to

conversation. The use of interactive journals has been studied using both native and non-native speakers of English (Staton 1981, 1983). The findings suggest that ESL students are able to make progress toward understanding and producing more formal discourse by using the less formal, more "oral" style of a journal. The research has also documented that, for ESL students, the journals become a vehicle for obtaining information about school subjects and about English (Staton 1981).

ESL writing may also play a role in content area construction. In second-grade social studies, for example, a class of limited English speakers studied several Native American tribes. During class time set aside for ESL, the teacher told the class about each tribe, and the class then participated in such activities as creating sand paintings, constructing totem poles, and making dioramas. The teacher shared some books about Indians, but no formal reading was required. At the end of the unit, the teacher asked the students to write about something they had learned. One child wrote what appears in Figure 3, using writing to reflect upon what he had studied.

For ESL students working with content area textbooks, the use of the "guided writing procedure" may contribute both to ESL students' understanding of text material and to their ability to express that understanding in writing (Searfoss, Smith, and Bean 1981). The guided writing procedure involves children in brainstorming what they know about the topic they will read about, putting their knowledge in writing, reading and discussing the text, and writing again. Writing serves both to set expectations for reading and to provide a mechanism for rethinking the contents of the text.

Finding/Generalization 5[1]

ESL learners can (and should) write English before they have complete control over the oral and written systems of the language. Second language acquirers' written products reflect their language development at a given point in time. As learners gain more control over the language, their writing will reflect this development (Hudelson 1983). Consider these examples (see Figure 4) from a second grader from Puerto Rico who was enrolled in a public school in Florida. They were gathered by an ESL tutor who encouraged the child's early and continued written expression but did not correct the writing efforts.

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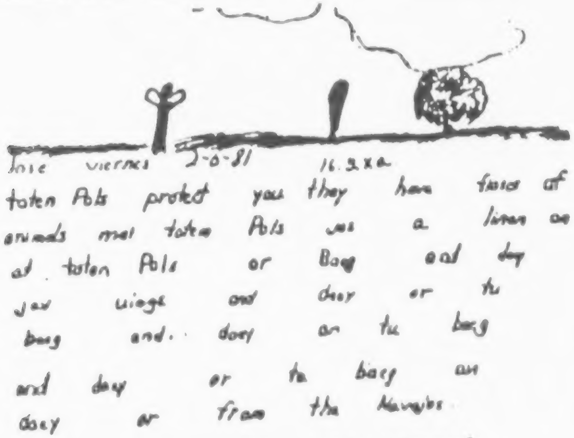
[1] Although this generalization relates closely to the one just discussed, it merits separate comment because many elementary-level ESL teachers fear that if they allow children to write "incorrectly" they will contribute to the children's continued use of those forms.

FIGURE 3


Jose viernes 2-6-81 16.3xa

totem Pols protect you they have fasa of
animals mei totem Pols was a linan on
at totem Pols or Bog and dey
jav wings and dey or tu
bog and. dey on tu bog
and dey or tu bog an
dey or from the Navajos

totem poles protect you. they have faces of
animals my totem pole has a lion on
it totem poles are big and they
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big and they are too big
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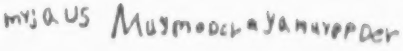
FIGURE 4

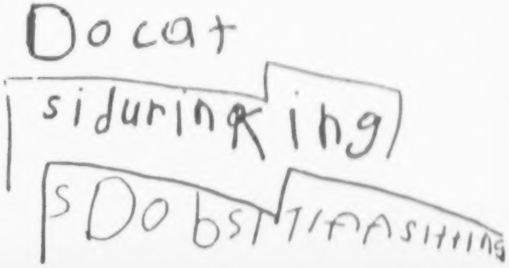
October


myjaus Muymodcl a yamayppDer

myjaus may model ayamayppder

my house my mother and my father

December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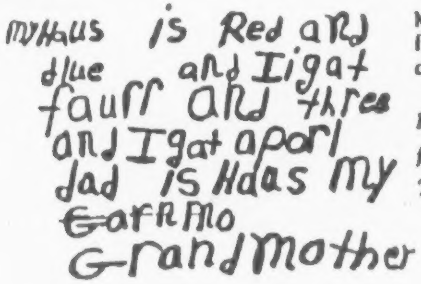
The cat is drinking

Dog sit Tiff is sitting

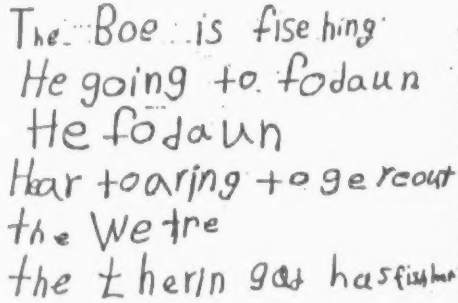
March


myHaus is Red aRd
dlue aNd Iigat
faurr aNd threa
aNd Igat aporl
dad is Haus my
~~Ga~~rRMo
GrandMother

My Haus is Red and dlue and Iigat faurr and three and I gat aporl dad is Haus my grandmother

My house is red and blue and I got flowers and trees and I got apples That is house my Grandmother

May


The Boe is fisehing
He going to fodaun
He fodaun
Har toaring to gereout
the Wetre
the therin gad hasfishr

The Boe is fisching
He goin to fo daun
He fo daun
He toaring to gereout
the wetre
the therin gad has fish

The boy is fishing
He going to fall down
He fall down
He trying to get out the water
The turtle got his fish

Other Samples from May

The dog going fighting
with the turtle
the turtle going
bite the dog
the boy going to
take the dog and the turtle
going bite the dog

The boy take the dog
He take the dog
He put he tail in the water
He fall down
He going jump to take
the dog to the water

The turtle dies
He going to XXXX out
The boy take the
turtle in his
hand and the frog and the
dog going walking
the boy digging the hole

In October this child hypothesized that English was spelled like Spanish, and while she was unable to write sentences, she did come up with a phrase she knew. By December the overwhelming influence on her writing was the material (*The Miami Linguistic Readers*) she was reading in her classroom. She was willing to write only what she thought she could spell correctly, what she had copied in class. In February and March she began to use some of the words she had learned to read in her classroom, but she was also willing to predict the spelling of words that were in her oral vocabulary even though they were not in her spelling repertoire. As the school year continued, she used a combination of reading words, words from spelling, and words for which she invented the spelling. She also became more willing to venture beyond the safe topic of her house. Over time, both the quantity and quality of her writing improved. Although in May she still did not demonstrate complete control over the oral or written systems of English, she did exhibit growth in her ability to express herself in English. Additionally, her writing over time helps the teacher document her progress in English.

This child's writing was nurtured by a situation in which the adult working with her believed that she was capable of writing in English while still acquiring and refining the language. This ESL tutor encouraged the child's writing with the awareness that it would develop over time and believed that the mistakes this child made were an integral part of her growth as an English user.

Finding/Generalization 6

As many examples in this article illustrate, the processes of writing, reading, speaking, and listening in a second language are interrelated and interdependent. It is both useless and, ultimately, impossible to separate out the language processes in our teaching (i.e., to attempt to teach only listening or speaking or only reading or writing, although some elementary ESL curricula still try to do so), or to try to present ESL material in a linear sequence of listening, speaking, reading, and writing. The examples presented here refute both that separation and that notion of sequencing. Second language learners demonstrate that they are dealing with and making sense of language as a totality rather than dealing with the language processes as separate entities.

CONCLUSION

Research on second language literacy in children has the following applications. Teachers should: 1) give children credit for interacting with and acting upon their environment; 2) use the students' lives and living environments for literacy experiences (that take advantage of what students know); 3) ask children both to respond to and to create meaningful language in meaningful contexts (that is, listening to or reading whole texts and writing for real purposes, as compared with filling in ditto sheets and labeling parts of speech); 4) realize that mistakes are a necessary part of second language development and, that they are critical to language growth; and 5) respond to student products, whether oral or written, more as work in progress (Graves 1982) than as final product by reacting primarily to what students are trying to express and only secondarily to form. These kinds of activities will help English as a second language learners in elementary schools to become the proficient users of English that all teachers want them to be.

■

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Recall of Text: Differences Between First and Second Language Readers

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This article examines the differences between first and second language readers' recall of a written English passage. First, the hierarchical content-structure analysis developed by Meyer (1975a) is presented and then discussed in terms of the selected English expository prose text. Next, the results of a reading experiment are presented. In this experiment, adult students from three different language backgrounds, English, Japanese, and Spanish, read the passage and wrote immediate recalls. The comparison of the students' recall protocols with the hierarchical content-structure analysis of the passage revealed that the native English speakers in the sample outperformed the students of English as a second language (ESL) in terms of total recall. Yet, unexpectedly, there was no significant difference between these groups in the recall of the high-level ideas of the text. Finally, the article discusses discourse features in the recall protocols, such as "perspective" and "pragmatic condition," which are not included in Meyer's system. Recommendations for future research are suggested, and implications for reading instruction are presented.

BACKGROUND

During the past couple of decades, psychologists, psycholinguists, text linguists, and reading educators have tried to explicitly describe discourse-level structures of prose. Formal models of text (discourse-level grammars) have been developed, and claims have been made about their power not only to describe text structure explicitly but also to give explicit rules for generating passages. In other words, these models have attempted to duplicate the functions of sentence-level grammars at the text level. Van Dijk and Kintsch's theory of macro and micro structures (1978), Rumelhart's generative grammar for stories (1975), and Mandler and Johnson's (1977) and Thorndyke's (1977) story grammars are among the best known. These

TEACHING STRATEGIES

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An Antidote For The Language Deficiency Hypothesi

Beverly Wilkins

In the Spring, 1984 issue of this newsletter, Dr. Beth Franklin called for reading instruction for ESL students that builds on and strengthens their knowledge of how language works and develops their conceptualizations about literacy. Dr. Franklin urged the writing and reading of whole texts rather than over-reliance on "isolated aspects of the literacy system." Shared Book Experience is a way of teaching reading that meets Dr. Franklin's requirements.

Shared Book Experience arrived in the Americas from the Antipodes during the late 70's. Based on the work of Don Holdaway and Marie Clay, Shared Book has been used with great success among culturally and linguistically diverse populations in New Zealand, Australia, the Fiji Islands, and Jamaica.

Constructed according to a developmental and holistic model, Shared Book is the antithesis of the isolated-skill drill, vily phonic approach that predominates in the teaching of ding to ESL students. Because it is based on a developmental model, Shared Book builds on the students' existing knowledge of language and allows them to respond at their own levels of development, thereby guaranteeing them success. Because it is based on a holistic model, Shared Book is characterized by the setting in motion of the real language processes of reading and writing. Children's literature is the core of its instructional program, functioning both as motivation and reward, and acting as a bridge across cultural differences to literacy.

Like the natural approach of Krashen and Terrel (1983), Shared Book Experience emulates first language learning. It is self-regulated, non competitive, non judgemental, and intrinsically rewarding. It is characterized by more learning and less teaching.

Elley and Mangubhai (1983), who introduced Shared Book Experience into ESL programs in the Fiji Islands, list five critical differences between L_1 and L_2 acquisition which Shared Book experience alleviates. First, there is a difference in strength of motivation. The learner is motivated to acquire his first language in order to communicate. The L_2 learner is already able to communicate in his first language, so external motivation such as the need to pass an examination or please a teacher is depended upon. The second difference is the em- asis on meaning rather than form. In most L_2 classrooms the focus is on practice and repetition of structure rather than on conveying new meaning. Meaning is the primary focus in L_1 acquisition. Third, the amount of exposure students have to L_2 is much less than the L_1 exposure. Fourth, L_1 exposure is unrestricted and within a natural context that helps the learner to comprehend. Fifth, in some cases the L_2 model is a non-native speaker. This often means an L_2 learner will be exposed to faulty models who are less able to provide the variety of form and meaning that L_1 models are generally capable of providing.

To increase the efficiency of second language learning, it is necessary to reduce the differences between L_1 and L_2 acquisition. Shared Book Experience does this through frequent exposure to an abundance of high-interest, illustrated story books. Emphasis is on prediction and confirmation of both events in the story and language so that children are constantly striving for meaning. Because they enjoy the experience children frequently ask to reread the stories in large groups, in small groups, in pairs, or both themselves. The result is that th language of the book is mastered with a minimum of stress.

The continual reading of new stories and reading of familia ones imitates bedtime story techniques where much knowledg of language is acquired without direct teaching. Shared Boo read-alongs are followed by art work, chants, songs, dances choral readings, dramatizations, and writing projects as in terests of children dictate. The emphasis is always on enjoyment and retrieval of meaning rather than on drilling isolate elements.

Skills are taught but always within context. Children learn t rely on meaning and syntax for word solving. Sounding out used as a last resort because it is a highly inefficient way t unlock words. Children quickly acquire a sense of the dire tional conventions of print and of the one to one co respondence between the written and the spoken wor children learn to predict from context, pictures, syntax, an last of all, letter detail. They are encouraged to take risks an rewarded for meaningful guesses. Children learn to self co rect, again relying primarily on meaning and sentence structu and lastly on letter detail. They also acquire a sight vocabular become familiar with letter-sound associations, letter name the rules of punctuation and the stress and intonation patter of the language of books, in itself an enormous aid in predi ting language.

One Program's Experience With Shared Book

The teacher introduces a "big book" to the children. S places it on an easel and using a pointer to help the childr follow along, she reads the story aloud with enthusiasm. So of the more knowledgeable children may join in though th are not pressured to do so. The stories are fun, full of surpr twists and comic situations. The children love them and ask them again and again. The teacher repeats the story always the request of the children. As she begins again, more more children join in.

continued on the next page

The reading of the story is frequently followed by dramatization or by songs, chants, or art work. The purpose is to involve the child in the story at the imaginative level.

During story repetitions, the teacher pauses to emphasize print conventions or to mask over a word or phrase asking the children to predict what comes next. She varies the instruction according to the skills already possessed by the children. Skills are acquired but always within a meaningful and enjoyable whole.

Later the children take small versions of the large book and go over them alone or in small groups. Always they wish to write books themselves, beginning with a simple imitation of the story that the teacher presents and ending up desiring to create a story of their own, one that follows the original pattern but incorporates their ideas. Soon they are awash in print, new stories presented every day, old stories repeated endlessly out of pure love, and original stories created and written down.

By the end of an eight week program with four hours of instruction each week, three kindergartners who had been almost unaware of print are on the verge of reading. First graders who couldn't seem to learn the sequence of the days of the week are blithely rattling them off in proper order after self-imposed repetitions of Sesame Street's version of "Solomon Grundy". Forming a human bathtub, each taking a turn at being the bather in the middle, they had recited the verses endlessly. Caught up in the rhythm of the chant, and in the fun of the action, they had never noticed that they had learned a new skill, one that was difficult for them when presented in isolation outside a meaningful context.

This method works especially well with second language learners. Instead of thinking of them as language deficient, Shared Book Experience capitalizes on what they know. Instead of emphasizing the grapho-phonemic system in which they are weak, it builds on the semantic and syntactic knowledge they already possess. It lets them join in at their level when they wish and through patterned, repetitive language and the sheer attraction of a good time, leads them toward oral and written fluency.

In the eight week summer program, children acquired recordable skills, but what is far more important, they learned to love reading so much that they would steal their favorite books in order to spend more time with them. They loved to imitate the teacher in instructing one another at the easel. And, greatest gift of all, they became convinced that they could do it, that they could read and write successfully.

It is evident from the proceding program description, that the basic premise of Shared Book Experience is that real learning takes place at the point of interest (Elley and Mangubhai). It is solidly grounded on certain insights about language and learning, that it does not always make things clearer to divide them into smaller and smaller parts since clarity is heightened by seeing things whole, that the teaching of language skills should always occur in a wider context, and that real language processes should be continually set in motion so that the learner is encouraged to explore skills within the process, rather than being given isolated instructions and rules about how the skill is to be carried out. Repeated exposure to print in a high interest context, with enough support from the teacher and the materials, results in success in reading for second language learners.

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BOOK-MAKING FOR BEGINNING ESL STUDENTS

by Joan M. Dungey
Seattle Area Literacy Tutors

Reading experiences correlated with oral work which result in writing events recognize the wholeness of language. Reading and writing are interrelated: people learn to read by reading, to write by writing, and also to read by writing and to write by reading (Goodman and Goodman 1983). Making books gives students writing and reading opportunities that do not exist in published workbooks and encourages growth in all four language skills: listening, speaking, reading, and writing. Book-making also brings students' backgrounds and interests to the language classroom. It lets students discover relationships between language elements in a non-directed, non-linear way; it gives freedom to "explore ideas and thoughts on paper" (Zamel 1983:168). Early natural writing experiences may benefit beginning ESL students just as they do preschoolers writing in their native languages (Goodman and Altwerger 1981; Harste, Burke, and Woodward 1982), giving them the opportunity to practice the intellectual and logical skills that are as much a part of composing as linguistic skills are (Taylor 1976).

I started book-making with ESL students with a ten-year-old Korean girl, Mee Lynn, who could neither speak, read, nor write English. Unreceptive at first to the learning environment, Mee Lynn needed all possible motivators to capture her attention and interest. Although very intelligent, her attention span was short and we had to move rapidly from one activity to another—until we made books!

Mee Lynn had been an abandoned child and grew up in orphanages and foster homes before being adopted by her American parents. Food, as survival, was very important to her. Capitalizing on this interest in food, we began our first book about "Foods." Mee Lynn selected her own material. She cut and pasted pictures of her choice from magazines, categorizing and arranging the pictures in a sequence. I later sewed the pages together and bound them in a decorated cardboard cover to make a professional looking book. This, then, became the teaching tool for learning the names of the foods, orally, put into patterned sentences, such as "Do you like ________?" between Mee Lynn and Philip, an English-speaking ten-year old who served as a peer-tutor. Natural conversation developed as they would discuss special experiences with the foods. By using the book back and forth to practice the names of the foods, Mee Lynn knew all the food names after just two sessions and could make statements and ask questions.

Labeling the pictures in the book was the next step as we began to build a reading vocabulary of words. Since Mee Lynn knew the words in the "Foods" book, it was a logical step to begin to recognize these words in print. Finding the words in a magazine or newspaper gave an added dimension and reinforced her beginning reading skills. Once she had found and had learned to recognize the words, Mee Lynn was eager to use them in a meaningful context; thus, we started with list-making and sentence writing almost from the beginning: "I love ice cream"; "I hate onions."

We continued making new books for new vocabulary topics on special subjects, such as "People," "Signs," "I Like," and "Animals." We saw then that we could make the books for other readers, too. For instance, while looking for pictures of animals, we found a sequence of pictures of birds building a nest, hatching the eggs, and feeding their young, which made a story-book suitable for use in our elementary science program, with all the language, both oral and written, built into that. We now have another beginning ESL student in our class who is busy making her own "Foods" book while Mee Lynn is working on other topics. So, as well as being an author, Mee Lynn has become a peer-tutor as she assists and encourages the other girl to practice language.

From the very beginning, then, ESL students can find in book-making a way to select their own subject matter and to learn not only how to talk to someone about that subject but also how to communicate something of interest to a reader. When writing in a second language is introduced in this way, the students inevitably perceive it as a meaningful communicative activity, and a solid foundation is established for further writing instruction.

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Journal Writing for the LEP Child

Nancy S. Dunetz

In 1982, after many years of conducting a pull-out program, I was assigned a non-graded, self-contained ESL class of 10-, 11-and 12-year old students. Having the students all day long afforded me the opportunity to teach language the way I had always wanted to: as an outgrowth of shared experiences related to the entire curriculum.

The experiences were recorded on experience charts, which in turn became the content of reading lessons. In time, this activity evolved into children recording the experiences on their own. From there we made the jump to personal journals.

Introducing Journal Writing

The most effective procedure I have found for introducing journal writing is to write my own journal on the board for all the children to see. This serves many purposes in addition to providing a model. The children are very curious about my life, so they read my journal with great interest. I try to limit the sentence structure and vocabulary, deliberately inserting a few difficult words each time, which I underline. After the children have finished reading silently, they are free to ask me questions about what I have written. Then it is my turn to ask them questions. I ask comprehension questions and questions leading them to use contextual cues to figure out the meanings of the underlined words. At this poiint, the journal is read aloud, either by myself or by individual children. Once more the children have the opportunity to ask questions. Then it is their turn to do the writing.

During this process, the class has engaged in a reading comprehension lesson and meaningful conversation. They have had the opportunity to get desired information from the printed word. They have seen feelings and opinions, in addition to information, in print. And perhaps they have formulated some ideas about what they themselves can write.

Topics

Selecting topics is a big obstacle to journal writing. The initial stage of having nothing to write about can last several weeks or longer. The inexperienced journal writer tends to view the journal either as a schedule of activities or as a record of a special event. If nothing special has occurred in the eyes of the children, they will have nothing to write. The children must be shown that they are always experiencing. I have had success by suggesting topics such as *A Scary Dream* or *Something That Made Me Angry.*

When children submit just a chronological listing of their activities, I will ask them to elaborate on one of the activities. For example, if they went to the movies, I will ask them to describe the story briefly, and state what they liked or didn't like, and why. If they went to a restaurant, I will ask for a description of the environment, the food and the people, ending with an evaluative statement.

Uses of the Journal

By writing every day over a long period of time, students develop some fluency in writing. They will ask for words or spellings of words they don't know, thus expanding their vocabularies. Some students use the journal to communicate with the teacher about personal problems, or to inform the teacher of things they are too embarrassed to discuss directly. Sometimes I will write a student a note about an entry, either to make a suggestion about the situation or to show a reaction. With some students this procedure has turned into an ongoing dialogue.

I do not "mark" journals or correct errors in the journals. These are the children's personal documents for expressing feelings and ideas, and for experimenting with writing. Aiming for accuracy in spelling or structure diverts the students' attention away from the content and the process of converting what is in the mind to print. Instead, I make a note of frequent errors and use these errors as the bases of language lessons and weekly spelling lists and vocabulary lists.

Format

All levels of students can participate in some forms of journal writing. Some less advanced groups might use class experience charts, which they write as a class and all copy into their journal books, as their beginning journal writing activity. Very elementary students can draw pictures or use photographs, which they must label (with or without help). If necessary, they can even do the labelling in their native languages. Once that technique is learned, they can advance to writing a whole sentence about each picture. They can make monthly or weekly calendars, entering important events, pictures of them, and one or two descriptive words about each event. More advanced students would be expected to write longer and longer paragraphs. They can read their journal entries into a tape recorder. They can type them on a typewriter. All the students can look over a month of entries and construct time lines. Students can sometimes work on journals together to share ideas.

Purposes

The journal serves many purposes. It enables the students to improve their writing ability while keeping a record of what has transpired and exploring and clarifying ideas and feelings. They can use the journal to communicate with the teacher and with other students. It enables the teacher to know the students better, to discover their interests and concerns, and to measure their growth in writing ability.

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ESOL IN ELEMENTARY EDUCATION SIS
NEWSLETTER

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MULTISYSTEM

Systematic Instructional Planning for
Exceptional Bilingual Students

LANGUAGE MINORITY
PARENT INVOLVEMENT

RESOURCE MATERIALS

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Communicating with Parents of Culturally Diverse Exceptional Children

by Robert L. Marion

Working with parents of culturally diverse exceptional children should be considered an exacting challenge to teachers and educators in this decade. The adoption of such an attitude by professionals does not negate or overly subscribe to the problems that might arise between parents and educators with conflicting ideologies, values, and feelings. Rather, such a view recognizes that relationships between parents of culturally diverse handicapped and gifted children and professionals have been drastically altered by recent court decisions and legislative enactments. These pronouncements have produced significant attitudinal changes among the affected groups.

Most of the changes brought about through the courts or by legislation have been viewed as positive by parents who had previously been identified as disadvantaged, disenfranchised, or deprived. There have been several reasons for this response from culturally different parents. The *Mills* v. *the Board of Education* (1972) decision spoke to the issue of tracking. It forbade the District of Columbia schools to use a system of placement that resulted in the assignment of disproportionate numbers of minority students to the general or lowest curriculum track in the schools. The *Pennsylvania Association of Retarded Citizens (PARC)* v. *Pennsylvania* (1971) case was a significant victory for handicapped students and parents. It established the right of every mentally retarded child to have an opportunity for a free and appropriate public school education. The Education for All Handicapped Children Act of 1975 (Public Law 94-142) provided several guarantees to nts and clarified their roles as co-equal partners in the educational

ally diverse children were rights relating to due process, nondiscriminatory testing, and least restrictive environments.

To understand the significance that such parents attached to these developments, the similarities and differences in the educational process for culturally diverse gifted and handicapped children in the schools must be reviewed. The similarities can be summarized from the following viewpoints. First, parents of handicapped and gifted children should be considered parents of exceptional children. This statement can be interpreted within the framework that both categories of children have special educational, social, and personal needs (Cruickshank, 1975; Hoyt, 1976; Marland, 1972; Sato, 1974). Second, formal assessment has played a role in the assignment of numerous children to these divergent categories of exceptional children. This has been equally true for minority children and for nonminority children in society. Third, teacher perceptions have been a vital part of the total process of identifying gifted and handicapped students. Prior to Public Law 94-142, teachers were frequently the primary and even sole identifiers of handicapped children (Dunn, 1968; Hurley, 1969).

Some differences between the two categories of gifted and handicapped should be underscored, however. First, although both subsets are considered exceptional, giftedness has the connotation of excellence, of wisdom, of power. Handicapping conditions have the connotation of weakness, subnormality, and ugliness (Griffin, 1979). Second, assessment as utilized by the schools has played a far greater role in assigning culturally diverse populations to classrooms for mentally retarded children than to classes for the gifted (Dunn, 1968; Jones, 1972; Marion, 1979). Third, teacher nomination as a selection tool in the identification process has not been very successful in recognizing giftedness among culturally diverse children (Pegnato & Birch, 1959). It has been used with more accuracy in diagnosing culturally different pupils who are handicapped (Dunn, 1968; Hobbs, 1975; Jones, 1972).

REACTIONS OF PARENTS

The reactions of parents to these similarities and differences in the schooling process have led to a markedly different relationship between professionals and parents of culturally diverse gifted and handicapped students in contrast to their nonminority counterparts. The reactions of parents of culturally different children in both categories can probably be described differently from the way in which most of the literature to date has depicted them. Descriptions of the reactions of parents to the birth of ing. A frantic search for a cause and a cure often accompanies these defense mechanisms. Many parents have been helped by professionals and other parents to accept the handicap of their child.

These reactions can be traced directly to studies of Anglo American parents. Much of the data was obtained from observing, examining, and reporting on the activities of nonminority parents. Not as much evidence on the same subject has been accumulated and documented with culturally diverse parents. One 3 year study (Marion & McCaslin, 1979) has served to substantiate the fact that many parents of culturally diverse handicapped children are not consumed with the same strong feelings as those that overwhelm nonminority parents. Luderus (1977) also supported the position that culturally different parents do not fit the stereotype generally ascribed to parents of handicapped children. Frequently, parents of culturally diverse handicapped children have not expressed shock, disbelief, sorrow, and some of the other associated feelings of guilt and depression. On the contrary, prior to Public Law 94-142, feelings of protection and acceptance of the handicapped child was the more typical emotion (Marion & McCaslin, 1979). This was especially true of Mexican-American and Black families, both of whom had extended family networks (Billingsley, 1968; Hill, 1972). Much of the research during this period did not stress the strengths of minority and culturally diverse families and tended to ascribe pathologicial conditions to atypical family structures (Minuchin, 1967; Myrdal, 1944). Many researchers also ignored the role of religion and the feelings of acceptance and security engendered by its place of prominence in culturally diverse families (Billingsley, 1968; Cole, 1967; Hill, 1972).

The burden of having a handicapped child in the family was probably most strongly fixed in the minds of culturally diverse parents when their child entered school (Barsch, 1969). Faced with large numbers of culturally different children in urban areas, regular school systems showed their inability to accommodate these children by assigning increasing numbers of them to special education classes (Dunn, 1968; Hobbs, 1975; Jones, 1972). Special education aided in this movement by the reciprocal acceptance of these children into classes for the mentally retarded (Hurley, 1969; Hurley, 1971). Therefore, in the 1970's great numbers of culturally diverse children grew up in the special education system and, as adolescents, have become products of a self fulfilling prophecy (Larsen, 1975).

The greatest reaction expressed by parents of culturally diverse handicapped children has been one of anger and dismay at the policy of overinclusion of their children in classes for the mentally retarded and emotionally disturbed. This policy, as practiced by the schools, has permeated the thinking of culturally diverse families to such an extent that they have become desperate and confused. The anger displayed by these parents

has been a reaction against an educational system that they feel has promoted these two categories as the only appropriate depositories for their children (Hurley, 1971; Marion, 1979).

Parents of culturally diverse gifted students have not reacted to a policy of inclusion but rather to school practices of exclusion. Although gifted children are considered exceptional children, parents of culturally diverse gifted students have been less than optimistic about the chances that their children will gain entry into programs for talented students (Marion, in press). Pessimistic reactions to the heavy reliance by schools upon IQ tests as the major discerner of giftedness in students is common. Only when a marriage between "nature" and "nurture" theories is effected are parents of culturally diverse gifted children given to hope that their children might be included in these programs.

Many of the frustrations of parents of culturally diverse gifted populations have also revolved around the condition of schooling for adolescents. Parents are concerned that many culturally diverse problem adolescents of today were yesterday's gifted and talented children (Shaw, 1978). As younger children they might have been described as:

1. Members of large, financially insecure, and *a priori* love families.
2. Exhibiting inappropriate social behavior.
3. Popular with their classmates and possessing more social insight than their peers.

Parents are fearful that a goodly number of adolescents who demonstrated these tendencies to teachers were mislabeled *emotionally disturbed, socially maladjusted*, or *mentally retarded* on the strength of atypical family characteristics or culturally different mannerisms.

CONCERNS OF PARENTS

Many of the concerns of parents of culturally diverse gifted and handicapped children are creations of the negative image that education has projected. Consequently, many of the difficulties in the communication process can be traced directly to this undesirable image. For instance, special education has clung tenaciously to the view that the perfect family corresponds to an average US Census family, comprised of two parents and two children. Most culturally diverse families, especially the poor, exceed this family size, which immediately implies that they are atypical. Such an image strains the traditional concept of giftedness, when its presence is acknowledged solely in an only child or in the eldest of two children (Barbe, 1965). Likewise, parents of culturally different handicapped children have been made to feel guilty about their large families.

Testing

Perhaps the concern that has caused most friction to occur between schools and culturally diverse populations with gifted and handicapped children has been the issue of testing. This issue has occupied the thinking of culturally diverse groups for a long time (Gay & Abraham, 1974; Oakland, 1974). Reasons for this preoccupation with the testing issue have been well documented through the courts (*Diana* v. *State Board of Education*, 1973; *Larry P.* v. *Riles*, 1972). The concern of parents of handicapped children has centered upon the use of tests to disproportionately assign their children to classes for the mentally retarded or the emotionally disturbed (Children's Defense Fund, 1974; Hurley, 1971). Parents of culturally diverse handicapped children have complained that prior to Public Law 94-142 their opinions were not solicited and they did not have any input into the placement of their children (Children's Defense Fund, 1975; Hickerson, 1966; Southern Regional Council, 1974).

With regard to culturally diverse gifted children, the uneasy truce between "nature" and "nurture" opponents has failed to quiet the differences of opinion concerning the potential for giftedness among this group. Although the definition of giftedness has been broadened, schools continue to support the idea that intelligence is measured by an IQ obtained through testing (Mercer, 1973).

Identification

A final concern that has troubled parents of culturally diverse gifted and handicapped children has been the question of teacher identification. This issue has emerged because many studies report on the inability of teachers to recognize giftedness among culturally different children (Malone, 1975; Pegnato & Birch, 1959). Traditional indicators upon which observations are based are usually middle class values, family stereotypes, and teacher expectations about conformist pupil behavior (Larsen, 1975; McCandless, 1967). In the eyes of many teachers, culturally diverse gifted populations fail to measure up to these indicators (Marion, 1979). On the other hand, many culturally diverse handicapped children are in fact identified and placed into special education (Prillman, 1975).

COMMUNICATING WITH PARENTS

Parents of culturally diverse gifted and handicapped students have exhibited a number of common needs. When these needs have been met, the views of culturally diverse parents have generally been changed to a

als who are attempting to work with these parents should have an understanding of these needs to effectively expand their roles in the communication process.

Need for Information

The need for information constitutes one of the primary requests from parents of culturally diverse gifted and handicapped children. In communicating with parents of handicapped children, much of this need can be satisfied through regularly scheduled meetings and conferences and planning sessions for the individualized education program (IEP). Many educators assume that their own familiarity with Public Law 94-142 is automatically bestowed upon the parents. Nothing is further from the truth. Some parents of culturally diverse handicapped children need to further understand the basic tenets of Public Law 94-142, including their rights and responsibilities. Educators working with parents should be certain that they:

1. Have a knowledge of the law itself and of corresponding regulations.
2. Have a thorough knowledge of their clients.
3. Can effect communication among staff members, between parents and the agencies which are to serve their child, and, in some cases, between staff and the client they are assisting.
4. Utilize appropriate times and settings for parent-teacher conferences.

Only well informed parents can be intelligent consumers of information. There should be agreement that parents and educators have one common denominator, their concern for the education and welfare of children.

Parents of gifted culturally diverse children have experienced many problems similar to those of their counterparts with handicapped children. They, too, have an information gap when qualitative and quantitative differences of giftedness are being discussed. Many parents have not been made aware of the broadened definition of gifted children as those individuals who excel consistently or show the potential for excelling consistently in any human endeavor—academic, creative, kinesthetic (performance skills), or psychosocial (relational and leadership skills). Parents must exchange information to be assured that the broadened definition will not perpetuate segregation within gifted education, that is, nonminority children being placed in all academically gifted classes and culturally diverse pupils going into what would be considered "talented only" sections.

Educators who are attempting to exchange information with parents of culturally diverse students should be prepared to engage in time consuming tasks. Sometimes the parents' lack of knowledge can actually be caused by educators who tend to hold back information under the assumption that culturally different parents are not sophisticated enough to grasp the material. Rather than assume this stance, professionals should be putting into effect the following guidelines:

1. Send messages home in language parents understand.
2. Work with children to prevent previous negative experiences from having a lasting impression.
3. Respect the parents enough to listen for messages being returned.

Communicating in a clear, concise manner implies that professionals and parents exchange information in layman's terms. Educators should have a sensitivity to Ebonics (Black dialectical differences) and bilingualism and not be offended by different syntaxes or speech patterns used by some culturally diverse populations. On the receiving end, educators should be understanding of the fact that some parents of culturally different children have not profited from all the established communication vehicles used by nonminority parents. Many parents of culturally diverse children have not actively gathered information by affiliating with professional organizations (Marion, 1979; Roos, 1976). Those individuals lacking the ability to handle the sophisticated reading level of much of today's literature have not been able to familiarize themselves with written material. Many do not belong to social cliques that obtain and exchange information on an impromptu basis.

In facing these situations educators must have an accepting attitude. When parents and professionals continue to exchange information, the apathetic and confused parent can be replaced by the parent who wants to know:

1. Whether or not programs for all ages exist.
2. How the schools go about identifying exceptional children.
3. About procedures for evaluating children.
4. How children are placed in programs.
5. About due process.
6. Who their allies are. (U.S. Department of Health, Education & Welfare, 1976a, p. 4)

Educators will have to listen empathetically and realize that feelings of parents can change from trust to skepticism and/or curiosity. They may be critical of school policies and procedures. Teachers should realize that this reaction is normal and that parents may be hostile and desperate as they attempt to sort out facts from their fundamental beliefs about education.

Professionals who are attempting to work and communicate with parents are facing an important task (Rogers, 1961). They should be prepared to listen and be ready to join forces with parents concerning their rights and responsibilities. In essence, professionals should adopt the role of advocate with parents of culturally diverse children. Educators must report factual information in an objective fashion. By responding in this manner they can establish mutual positions of trust and respect.

Need to Belong

Another basic need of parents of culturally diverse gifted and handicapped children has been the need to belong. The same need applies to both categories in spite of obvious differences in the students. Parents with culturally different gifted and handicapped children are not well represented in the membership of parent organizations of either category. Some parent groups are unwilling to recruit culturally diverse populations into their organizations. Often an unstable family financial condition has contributed to the situation. Families struggling to meet basic survival needs may be unwilling to join dues paying associations. Moreover, if they have been experiencing basic survival needs, parents of culturally different children can be expected to be reluctant to associate with a membership comprised of people who have different socioeconomic and cultural backgrounds and interests.

The outcome of this nonalliance has been a feeling of isolation on the part of parents with culturally different children. These parents have often felt as if they were either unwanted visitors or undesirables. All too often the feeling of isolation has been brought on by an unfair appraisal of the family structure. It has not been easy for these parents to sit in on meetings where discussions about family characteristics and relationships are emphasizing issues foreign to their interests. Those who remain are often seen but not heard (Marion, 1979).

Schools have not successfully met the challenge of helping parents overcome their feelings of isolation and loneliness, either. They have practiced a policy of exclusion against the culturally different (Cohen, 1970). Language, speech, and racial differences have stamped certain groups of children as outsiders. Student pushouts, dropouts, and suspensions have characterized the schools' reactions to people who vary from the nonminority population (Southern Regional Council, 1974).

Nevertheless, the major responsibility for alleviating parental feelings of indifference and isolation remains with schools and teachers. They have been ranked second only to the family in importance in the lives of children (Hobbs, 1975). Parents can be helped to shed the feelings of loneliness if professionals will not label them with such stereotypes as "rejecting," "hostile," or "demanding." Educators and other professionals should:

1. Assure parents that they should not feel guilty about their child's exceptionality or problem.
2. Accept the parents' feelings without labeling them.
3. Accept parents as people—not a category.
4. Help parents to see the positives in the future.
5. Respect the need for parents . . . to value their lives highly.
6. Recognize . . . what a big job it is to raise an exceptional child and help parents to find . . . the range of programs, services, and financial resources needed to make it possible for parents to do the job with dignity. (U.S. Department of Health, Education, & Welfare, 1976b, p. 2)

Teachers and other professionals will have to become advocates for the inclusion of parents of culturally different children into organizations mainly frequented by nonminority parents. Culturally different parents should be encouraged to join parent organizations and present minority points of view. Educators will have to collaborate with parents to give them coping skills for joining and maintaining membership in such groups. Recruitment efforts might be strengthened with the addition of dues waivers for parents experiencing financial difficulties. Social isolation of culturally diverse parents will be reduced when their group numbers increase to the point where the majority membership acknowledges their presence.

Using these guidelines, teachers and other professionals will be assisting parents of culturally diverse gifted and handicapped children not only to combat feelings of isolation but also to achieve a sense of belonging.

Need for Positive Self Esteem

Maslow (1962) established the need for high self esteem as a fundamental issue in the hierarchy of needs. Parents of culturally diverse handicapped children have not experienced much enhancement of their self esteem as the schools have steadily increased the numbers of their children in classes for the mentally retarded or the emotionally disturbed. Their counterparts with gifted children have also suffered from a lack of self esteem. It has been pointed out to them that their children have consistently fallen short of measures of giftedness as determined by IQ tests. For both groups of parents it has been implied that family structures, economic class, and heredity all work to their detriment when they are compared to their majority counterparts (Jensen, 1969; Minuchin, 1967).

Parents in culturally diverse populations have a need to be understood.

them. Parents who have raised children in a cooperative atmosphere cannot be blamed for their alarm when this quality is not valued as highly as initiative in the school environment (Billingsley, 1968; Hill, 1972). Furthermore, Americans tend to pride themselves on "fighting against the odds and not giving up." Those persons who have not continually subscribed to this notion have often been accused of "sluffing off." Stoutheartedness and perseverance are expected of parents no matter what type of stress they may be confronting (Hudson, 1976). Parental reactions to these expectations have sometimes resulted in anger and loss of self esteem.

Professionals working with minority parents should capitalize on emotion to rebuild the self esteem of parents. Anger can be used to mobilize the parents into action. Parents should be urged to:

1. Know the law.
2. Work with other parents.
3. Work with professionals.
4. Use their right to speak.
5. Stop pleading; education is a right.
6. Learn how to take part in planning conferences.
7. Not compromise and insist on full evaluation and clear goals.
8. Be an active citizen. (U.S. Department of Health, Education, & Welfare, 1976b, p. 2)

Without question, educators and other professionals will have to continue their advocacy roles to assist parents of culturally diverse gifted and handicapped children in pursuing the prescribed actions. Parents are typically unwilling to undertake these assignments without the help of a committed, responsible professional.

However, these actions cannot be accomplished solely through teacher advocacy. The advocacy role for teachers will best be combined with an ombudsman approach. Educators are in a position to mediate any intense feelings that parents may have as they experience the stresses of rearing and educating their culturally different gifted and handicapped children. In these difficult times in the lives of parents, many will be heard saying that they do not need trials to build character (Hudson, 1976). Teachers should be prepared to deal with that attitude. They should seek to strengthen the self concept of parents by aligning themselves with the parents. Teachers place themselves in an understanding position by acknowledging frustrations and anger. Working from this stance, professionals can resolve some of the temporary affective blocks that hinder communication. They can diminish the chance that they will be perceived as experts or authority figures. If parents are led to feel that they lack the qualifications of their child, it can only serve to intimidate them. As a result, the parents' self concept is further diminished and any additional attempts at communication are thwarted. Educators who are seeking to work effectively with parents of culturally diverse gifted and handicapped children have recognized that this outcome is in direct opposition to the intended goal of facilitating communication.

Instead, teachers should continually seek to mobilize the energy of parents toward productive ends. Professionals should help parents find satisfaction in learning what can be done for their child and working actively for the child's maximum potential development. As a result, the gains that parents see in their children will become a source of continued motivation. Using this approach, educators can increase the confidence of parents. Convincing parents to work for better public understanding of their children, to improve facilities and increase funding, will result in their increased self esteem.

CONCLUSION

Communicating with parents of culturally diverse gifted and handicapped children is a time consuming task. For these parents the realization that their children will be thought of as "special" students can be expected to produce varied reactions. Professionals who work with parents of culturally different students should be prepared to meet their needs for belonging, self esteem, and information. Also, educators must be guided by an appreciation of dialectical deviations, a respect for cultural differences, and faith in the concept of individualized instruction. Professionals must be prepared to provide help at the cognitive and affective levels as they work with parents who are traditionally outside the mainstream of American education. Successfully meeting these needs and expectations will help educators move toward the goal of improving communication between professionals and parents of culturally diverse gifted and handicapped children.

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INVOLVING LIMITED-ENGLISH-PROFICIENT PARENTS AS TUTORS IN THEIR CHILDREN'S EDUCATION

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A growing body of research evidence suggests that important benefits are to be gained by school-aged children when their parents provide support, encouragement, and direct instruction at home and when home-school communication is active (Epstein, 1985a). Epstein writes, "The evidence is clear that parental encouragement, activities and interest at home, and parental participation in schools and classrooms positively influence achievement even after the students' abilities and family socioeconomic status are taken into account" (p. 1). Epstein's subjects were native-English-speaking students and their parents.

Support of Research

Current research on the effects of involvement of parents as tutors with limited-English-proficient (LEP) students seems to corroborate these findings (Simich-Dudgeon, 1985). Regardless of ethnic language background, the evidence is clear that all parents need support from the school and direct involvement of the classroom teacher to be able to act as knowledgeable tutors to their children at home. According to Bennett (1986) and Epstein (1986), parent involvement in academic activities with their children at home consistently results in increased knowledge about how to help their children with academic activities and how to evaluate the quality of teaching they are receiving. Parents who are well educated, middle or upper middle class, regardless of race and language difference, seem to accept the role of "involved parent" much more easily than their less educated, lower-middle-class counterparts who share their own ethnic and language background. These parents are already members of the mainstream Western culture. All parents, however, including LEP and non-English-proficient (NEP) parents, need assistance in determining how best to help their children with school-related tasks. Schools that promote and maintain strong parent-involvement programs take the initiative to contact and maintain communications with parents and to give them specific suggestions about how to help their children to succeed in school (Simich-Dudgeon, 1986; Epstein, 1985b, 1986).

Growing evidence links parent-as-tutor involvement and gains in student achievement, when parents learn a new role in which they support and reinforce the work of the school (Comer, 1980; Gillum, 1977; Rich, VanDien, & Mattox, 1979; Baltimore Sun, 1981, all cited in Epstein, 1985c). Results from a longitudinal study of about 300 3rd- and 5th-grade students in Baltimore show that from fall to spring, "students whose teachers were leaders in the use of parent involvement made greater gains in reading achievement than did other students whose teachers were not recognized for their parent involvement practices" (Epstein, 1985b, p. 1). However, no effects on mathematics achievement related to parent involvement were found.

Most parent involvement is practiced at the elementary school level. Teachers of younger students, for example, use more and different parent-involvement techniques than teachers of older students (Epstein & Becker, in press). However, in work with LEP high school students, Simich-Dudgeon (1986) found that involving parents as collaborators, co-learners, and facilitators of their teenage sons and daughters produced significant gains in the acquisition of spoken and written English skills.

Even when parents are illiterate, in their native language and/or English, research shows literacy gains. For example, Hewison and Tizard (1980) found that "children encouraged to read to their parents, and to talk with their parents about their reading, had markedly higher reading gains than children who did not have this opportunity (p. 86). These findings were constant regardless of differences in parents' literacy skills. Hewison and Tizard (1980) also found that children who receive parental help read much better than children who do not, and that small-group instruction by highly competent specialists at school did not produce student gains comparable with those obtained by parental involvement as tutors at home.

Of special interest to school districts with large numbers of LEP/NEP parents is Hewison and Tizard's (1980) conclusion that parents unable to read English or their native language were able to help their children learn literacy skills. These parents were also willing and able to collaborate with the school.

Definitions

Parent involvement is a term that includes several types of activities of home and school relations for the purpose of supporting and promoting school children's school success and well being. Epstein (1980) conducted a survey of 3,700 first-, third-, and fourth-grade teachers and their principals in 600 Maryland schools to determine the types of parent involvement that the schools recognized and practiced. The most prevalent types include:

- providing a *home environment* that supports their children's learning needs;
- maintaining *communication with the school* about school activities and their children's educational progress, including attending parent teacher conferences;
- serving as a *volunteer* in the school;
- becoming involved in *governance and advocacy*, such as belonging to PTA/PTO school board advisory councils; and
- assuming the role of *home tutor*.

Epstein characterized the fifth type of parent involvement as the "most difficult" (Epstein, 1986b, p. 9).

Parents as tutors at home involve themselves with their children, using specific learning activities that reinforce the work of the school. Ideally, the parent-as-tutor role is encouraged by the teacher who gives assistance with materials and suggestions for successful interaction with the child(ren) (Epstein, 1986; Simich-Dudgeon (1986). Epstein defines the parent-as-tutor involvement as "teachers' requests and instructions to parents to assist at home with learning activities related to the children's schoolwork" (p. 19, 1985a). This definition highlights two important characteristics of

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successful parent involvement. First, teachers have the responsibility to initiate and promote the involvement of parents as tutors of their children at home. Second, a good number of parents feel uncertain and uneasy about how to best help their children and reinforce their academic learning.

Simich-Dudgeon provides evidence suggesting that parental involvement at the high school level is long overdue (1986). Her work with LEP/NEP parents and their high school children calls for modifications to the parent-as-tutor role that has succeeded with elementary-aged children. Simich-Dudgeon (1986) suggests that the parent-as-tutor role must present the parent as co-learner, collaborator and supporter of his or her high school children at home. The parent-student relationship is developed through the use of structured academic activities that reinforce schoolwork. Simich-Dudgeon found that this type of parent involvement resulted in language achievement gains while at the same time it provided opportunities for parent-student interaction and family support.

Definitions of parent-as-tutor involvement, therefore, differ according to the role being highlighted and the age of the students. Parent involvement, including most of the types mentioned here, may be interpreted as a call for interference by parents from other cultural and linguistic backgrounds. For many such parents, the schools have full responsibility and qualifications for educating their children. Many parents find it inappropriate to "interfere" with the work of the school on behalf of their children. These parents consider their role to be confined to the home, and, as much as their means allow them, they provide for their children's well being and they ensure that home conditions support their children's study needs. For the growing numbers of these parents, a majority of whom are LEP or NEP, parent involvement is a new cultural concept that must be taught, together with new language skills. An additive model of parent acculturation is probably the best approach for training LEP/NEP parents. Within this approach, the parent culture is compared and contrasted with new cultural concepts of school and schooling encountered by their children. This approach allows the parents to contribute a rich world of experiences both to their children's education and to the school community in general. It allows the parents to acquire new skills without feeling inadequate, and it builds up confidence to learn how to reinforce academic work at home. Even illiterate parents, as Hewison and Tizard (1980) report, *can* promote the acquisition of reading skills by motivating their children, providing an environment that promotes the acquisition of literacy skills, providing comparative/contrasting cultural information, asking the children to read to them, and encouraging verbal interaction about written material.

Stimulating Parent Involvement

What can schools do to stimulate parent involvement? The school must first make a sincere commitment to consider parents as partners in their children's education. As Epstein (1985c) suggests, schools have a responsibility to promote the cultural and social contributions of minority parents. These parents can enrich and promote cultural pluralism in schools. Schools must support and maintain a two-way communication system for all parents, including parents who are themselves LEP or NEP. All written and verbal information should be available in the native language of the parents. Schools should promote and welcome parents' involvement in school activities (Epstein, 1985c). If necessary, bilingual liaisons might be available to contact and help LEP parents when needed (Epstein, 1986; Simich-Dudgeon, 1986).

Case Study: Trinity-Arlington Project

Parent involvement research with elementary-aged children is an emerging field. There is, however, little evidence about the extent of parent involvement—or lack of it—at the middle school and high school levels. In addition, research linking aspects of LEP high school student achievement and parent involvement is practically nonexistent. Some evidence is becoming available from field-initiated programs developed by local school districts with funds from Title VII grants of the Elementary and Secondary Education Act, Department of Education. One such example is the Trinity-Arlington Teacher and Parent Training for School Success project.

The Trinity-Arlington was a Title VII project of Academic Excellence. It was a three-year project, the result of the collaboration between an institution of higher education, Trinity College in Washington, DC, and a school district, Arlington Public Schools, Arlington, VA. The main goal of the project was to facilitate the acquisition of certain English skills in high school LEP students from four language backgrounds: Khmer, Lao, Spanish, and Vietnamese. English language development focused on English skills related to career and vocational education. This was achieved through the development of strong, supportive relationships among the students, their parents, and school staff centered on structured academic "home" lessons.

The role of parent as tutor was highlighted and encouraged by community liaisons in the native language of the parents. The parents were taught how to collaborate with their high school children at home in the completion of home lessons that constituted the Vocationally Oriented Bilingual Curriculum (VOBC). The VOBC was developed by participating teachers, counselors, administrators and community liaisons and it supplemented certain vocationally oriented topics with the ESL program at the implementing site. These topics were selected because they were representative of vocational topics nationwide.

To develop a strong parent-as-collaborator and co-learner program, the collaboration of all school personnel was essential. Thus, content teachers, ESL teachers, counselors, and administrators from the two participating high schools received training on how to develop better home and school cooperation with LEP parents and how to involve them in the education of their children. An essential component of the parent involvement program was the participation of bilingual community liaisons in all aspects of the program. These individuals, highly respected members of their language communities and knowledgeable themselves about the U.S. school system, were a key component in the success of the program. During the last year of the project (1985-86), more than 360 LEP high school students participated with their parents and families. Because of the success of the program and parent support, the program has been institutionalized in the Arlington school system.

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What Was Accomplished?

Final results were obtained for a total of 252 students for whom complete pre- and posttest data were available. Several locally developed and nationally validated measures of English proficiency were administered to the students. In addition, both parents and students were administered a content test that would provide evidence of cultural knowledge gained as a result of the VOBC information exchanged between parent and student. Salient findings include the following:

- Students reported learning as a result of doing the VOBC home lessons; increased interaction with parent(s), siblings, and/or caregivers; increased knowledge on the part of their parents; and better understanding of the U.S. school system.
- Students reported that the VOBC reinforced ESL vocational education concepts and language skills taught to them during ESL instruction.
- Students reported discussing the VOBC home lessons not only with parent(s) and guardians but more so with siblings. This third finding suggests that LEP parents who worked in two or three jobs were not available to act as home tutors to their children. In addition, many students reported that they were unaccompanied minors and/or heads of households. In these situations, parent involvement efforts were expanded to include the extended family (i.e., grandparents, aunts). As a result, these family members, including the student and his or her siblings, shared meaningful learning experiences.
- An analysis of the pre- and posttest data showed highly significant gains in the areas of writing, vocabulary, and reading comprehension. The same results were found in an analysis of a nationally recognized English proficiency test, which revealed gains in comprehension, fluency, vocabulary, grammar, and pronunciation skills.
- Parents' responses to the training and the VOBC were highly positive. As a result of their participation in the program, parents have acquired knowledge about the school system and procedures. Gains were recorded in parents' English language skills, survival skills, and concern for their children. Parents learned to appreciate the importance of spending time with their children on school matters, if not through direct help with homework when unimpeded by a language barrier, at least through indirect means such as discussion and encouragement.
- Frequency of parents' contacts with the school increased as a result of the program. In addition, the nature of these contacts demonstrated the effectiveness of the program.
- Teachers who integrated the VOBC activities into their ESL instruction were those who felt that the project had had an impact on English language gains by the students.

Materials

The Trinity-Arlington project developed the following materials:

- the Vocationally Oriented Bilingual Curriculum (VOBC) for use with LEP high school students, available in Khmer/English, Lao/English, Spanish/English, and Vietnamese/English (available from ERIC: ED 274219-222);
- the Teacher's Guide to the VOBC, to provide information regarding implementation of the VOBC (ED 274223); and
- a training videotape to supplement the VOBC and the Teacher's Guide.

The VOBC and Teacher's Guide may be ordered from the ERIC Document Reproduction Service, 3900 Wheeler Ave., Alexandria, VA 22304-5110. The training videotape may be obtained from the National Clearinghouse for Bilingual Education (11501 Georgia Ave., Wheaton, MD 20902).

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MULTISYSTEM

Systematic Instructional Planning for Exceptional Bilingual Students

SCHOOL-BASED SUPPORT/CONSULTING FOR MAINSTREAMING

RESOURCE MATERIALS

Source: The Bilingual Exceptional Child,
Donald R. Omark and Joan Good Erickson,
Eds.

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Training Paraprofessionals for Identification and Intervention with Communicatively Disordered Bilinguals

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In 1970, the Commission on Supportive Personnel of the American Speech and Hearing Association (ASHA) published *Guidelines for Supportive Personnel in Speech Pathology and Audiology* and recognized the category of "Communicative Aides." The move came in response to a desire for regulation of the use of paraprofessionals who were already assigned to a plethora of programs. Among the settings where the use of communication aides appeared most beneficial were those in which there were significant numbers of bilingual/bicultural children. Minority speech and hearing professionals were and are few and far between, and trained aides were utilized in the hopes of bridging the cultural and linguistic gap between the clinician and the clients and their families.

Before and since this ASHA policy statement, a number of projects and programs have been described in the literature (Alpiner, Ogden, and Wiggins, 1970; Berman, 1976; Braunstein, 1972; Carrier, 1970; Costello and Schoen, 1978; Dopheide and Dallinger, 1976; Frith and Teller, 1982; Galloway and Blue, 1975; Jelinek, 1976; Lynch, 1972; Pickering and Dopheide, 1976; Sommers et al., 1976). These projects and programs reflect a diversity in background, training, and utilization of aides and give rise to some common features and promising trends. This chapter will review information and explore pertinent areas regarding paraprofessionals. If

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paraprofessionals are to be assigned to work with the communicatively handicapped bilingual child, one should consider the following questions: who are the paraprofessionals, why are they needed, what are their roles, and how should they be trained?

Who Are the Paraprofessionals?

The terms *aides* and *paraprofessionals* are used interchangeably to include both salaried workers and volunteers. Their professional and life roles vary and represent different age levels, sexes, educational levels, socioeconomic status, ethnic groups, languages and dialects spoken, and experience. They include students, teachers, nurses, occupational and physical therapists, trained paraprofessionals, and children's peers.

Students

The students who assist the speech/language clinician are commonly graduate students majoring in speech/language pathology and audiology at a local college or university, although students from other disciplines also have assumed this role. The abilities and knowledge of students can vary, ranging from a total lack of theoretical and practical background to competency. The student paraprofessionals are generally enthusiastic and excited about their duties and anticipate having total responsibility for clients. Coursework should help students perform duties as paraprofessionals. The experience they receive as paraprofessionals can be valuable in increasing the relevancy of the course content and making learning more meaningful. A program at a major university that used students majoring in communicative disorders as paraprofessionals indicated that they showed increased self-confidence in clinical practice following the experience (Hall and Knutson, 1978). The differences between clinical practice and paraprofessional activity are considerable in that the paraprofessional is not permitted to plan or evaluate therapy, or carry out diagnostic procedures without the direct and constant supervision of the speech/language clinician, while these activities are part of the process of clinical practice.

Example:
A senior in a college communicative disorders program is serving as an aide while doing preclinical coursework. She works with severely communicatively handicapped children in a developmental center and is currently assisting in controlling drooling and in encouragi[illegible] ual tracking of objects (*see* Figure 21-1).

FIGURE 21-1
Preclinical speech-language pathology student assisting professional in therapy program.

Teachers

The teacher serving in the role of paraprofessional does not necessarily perform the same duties as other paraprofessionals who work directly with the speech/language clinician. However, the teacher can provide significant help to the communicatively handicapped child in the development of new communicative behaviors within the classroom setting. The teacher may frequently be asked to observe, record, and reinforce certain communicative behaviors. In addition, the teacher may be encouraged to modify teaching techniques used with small or large groups in order to help the child with a communicative disorder.

Example:
A first grade teacher modifies pronunciation of bilingual children while teaching phonics during a reading lesson.

Parents

Because parents spend a significant amount of time with their children, they are in a unique position to help their own children and others as well. P.L. 94-142 requires that the parents and the speech/language clinician agree on the goals and objectives developed for each child receiving services. This mandate gives the parents an opportunity to meet with the speech/language clinician to discuss the children's program and progress. The parents may be asked to help in the development of their child's communicative skills at home or to assist their child and other children at school. By working as a paraprofessional with the speech/language clinician, the parent has a chance to observe the process involved in speech and language therapy, and to participate in the therapeutic process. The trained parent can also work with other parents as a liaison between the school and the community.

> **Example:**
> A Mexican American mother is serving as an aide in the local kindergarten. She is assisting the speech/language clinician in recording, translating, and analyzing spontaneous language samples obtained in the classroom and on the playground.

Allied Health Professionals

Nurses often work with communicatively handicapped individuals whom they can assist in the development of communicative skills. The speech/language clinician can suggest ways in which the nurse can work on the patient's speech while engaged in nursing care.

Since many communicatively handicapped individuals often need other types of therapies, it is possible for the occupational and physical therapists to assist in the development of communication (Cromwell, 1974). Because these paraprofessionals work closely with their patients, they can perform assignments prepared by the speech/language clinician.

> **Example:**
> A nurse at a state institution has been trained to name body parts while delivering nursing care to residents.

Peer Teaching

Using clients' peers to assist in the training of handicapped individuals can be effective in working with the mentally retarded, learning disabled, laryngectomees, and aphasics. Peer assistance has become one of the most useful methods that the speech/language clinician has for helping the communicatively handicapped client to achieve maximum skills as rapidly as possible. Groher (1976) reported improved articulation skills among children who were trained by older children who also had articulation errors. The older child can become a role model for the younger child and, at described by Cloward (1976)

FIGURE 21-2

Peer tutor working with young LEP child under supervision of speech-language pathologist.

indicated that even when the tutor was a low achieving student, the tutor's own reading skills greatly improved while tutoring a younger child.

> **Example:**
> Fourth grade bilingual children are helping Spanish monolingual first graders increase their English vocabulary. (*see* Figure 21-2).

Salaried Paraprofessionals

The paraprofessional who is hired as an aide has a different role and responsibility from the paraprofessionals described above. These aides have been trained to do a specific job for a salary. They work directly with the speech/language clinician in an effort to improve program effectiveness. They also assume certain responsibilities in order to free the clinician from relatively simple, routine activities. This released time allows the speech/language clinician to focus on planning and implementing instructional programs and providing more intensive therapy for the more severe cases. A salary does not of itself add to the competence of paraprofessionals, but often the seriousness of the role and continuity of the program is boosted by providing salaries, rather than relying on volunteers' time.

When paraprofessionals are hired, training is generally provided by the employer. Such training does not usually involve formal coursework, but is done through on-the-job training in which the speech/language clinician describes the duties the aides are expected to perform and demonstrates specific activities. Such training is not necessarily transferable to other situations nor to other clients.

> **Example:**
> A salaried communication aide in a predominantly Chicano school is working with children with multiple articulation errors on carryover of target phonemes.

In summary, there are many types of paraprofessionals or aides who can assist in the rehabilitation of communicatively handicapped individuals. Although their ages and lifestyles vary, their primary function is basically the same—enhancing the effectiveness of speech/language therapy.

Why Are They Needed?

The need for bilingual/bicultural paraprofessionals in speech/language pathology is obvious, but relatively little attention has been given to their training or their duties. In this country, approximately 16% of the population speak languages other than English as a first language (Pickering, 1976). Although bilingual paraprofessionals have been employed in medical facilities as intake personnel and have assisted physicians in communicating with patients, as well as in schools as resource personnel, this practice has not been carried over into the field of communicative disorders. If the speech/language clinician is to truly understand the disorders of non-English proficient (NEP) and limited-English proficient (LEP) students, the clinician must examine their native languages rather than the language of the school.

In the schools, for example, bilingual paraprofessionals are a necessary part of the schools' attempts to encourage cultural pluralism. Partly because of the paucity of bilingual classroom teachers, bilingual paraprofessionals have been employed to assist the monolingual English teacher in bilingual classrooms. School personnel who live in the children's community and speak the same language are role models who can encourage positive self-identification and feelings of self-worth among these children. Bilingual paraprofessionals can also assist in motivating the children to achieve in school and to improve their communicative skills (Davies, 1977).

The Head Start program has been employing paraprofessionals since 1965. Head Start, serving a multicultural, multilingual group from low income communities, employs paraprofessionals to bridge the gap between the children and their teachers. That is, paraprofessionals are capable of interpreting [illegible] characteristics of each group to the other since they usually share the cultural and linguistic experiences of both. These paraprofessionals are selected from the community and thus understand the community lifestyle and perspectives. In addition, the paraprofessionals, having worked in the professional world, are knowledgeable about professional perspectives and goals.

A summary of functions ascribed to bilingual paraprofessionals have been noted by Goodwin (1977). Although these functions are discussed in relationship to classroom paraprofessionals, one can see the relevancy to bilingual/bicultural communication aides. The following roles are indicated:

Translator. The bilingual paraprofessional has the responsibility to provide the child with information that is generated in the class and to transmit information from the child to the teacher and other members of the class. The translator not only translates what is happening in the class, but actually teaches new information and concepts in the child's dominant language.

Reinforcer. The bilingual paraprofessional reinforces the child's correct responses, provides stimulation and encouragement, and monitors the child's feelings. This paraprofessional also counsels children with academic or emotional difficulties.

Model. The bilingual paraprofessional becomes a model for the children as one who successfully engages in the behaviors of two cultures and speaks both languages. The children have someone to emulate and to approach.

Monitor. The paraprofessional also assists the teacher in the classroom, on the playground, at the bus stop, and in the cafeteria by monitoring and disciplining the children's behavior. In this capacity, the paraprofessional has an opportunity to demonstrate leadership abilities and to teach classroom material, games, and activities.

Advocate. In cases of conflict between the child and the school, the bilingual paraprofessional becomes an advocate for the child and the family by explaining their legal rights and the responsibilities of the school to provide an appropriate education for all exceptional children. This can be done in a language that is familiar to the family. The paraprofessional serves as a spokesperson for the family in the meetings that determine the placement of the child in special education programs.

In summary, the general roles of paraprofessionals in the schools have been clearly established. These classroom aides have been supplementing the work of teachers for many years and more recently bilingual aides have been employed to support the educational process.

What Are Their Roles?

The guidelines developed by the American Speech/Language and Hearing Association require that paraprofessionals be directly supervised by ASHA certified clinicians. Speech/language clinicians [illegible] the duties to the paraprofessionals, define and maintain specific lines of responsibility and authority, assure that the paraprofessional is responsible only to the clinician in all client-related activities, and continually evaluate the paraprofessional's performance. The paraprofessional should not be responsible for making decisions regarding diagnosis, management, or future disposition of clients (ASHA, 1970).

The duties of the paraprofessionals vary from one setting to another. They are expected to assist the clinician with clients by working with them directly as well as in supportive activities. Contact with clients might involve drilling on specific sounds or linguistic patterns. The paraprofessional follows a lesson plan developed by the speech/language clinician.

Within the guidelines of the American Speech/Language and Hearing Association, paraprofessionals perform many functions. Alpiner, Ogden, and Wiggins (1970) and Scalero and Eskenazi (1976) have utilized them in the following ways: (a) assisting in articulation, language, hearing, and stuttering therapy; (b) conducting clerical work; (c) facilitating professional-family contact; (d) assisting in preparing instructional material; and (e) enforcing required safety and disciplinary rules with students enrolled in therapy.

Bilingual/Bicultural Paraprofessionals

Except for a statement regarding the ability of the paraprofessional "to understand and to sympathize with the cultural and linguistic heritages of the areas from which the clients come" (Commission on Supportive Personnel, 1970, p. 79), ASHA guidelines offer no specific roles or responsibilities for bilingual/bicultural paraprofessionals. This issue has not been specifically addressed by the Committee on Supportive Personnel nor by the Legislative Council.

Bilingual paraprofessionals are in a unique position to provide services in the schools, hospitals, and community agencies, and also receive and utilize specialized training in a rapidly growing profession. They can intervene in situations in which a monolingual English-speaking speech/language clinician can never be effective, especially in situations in which two languages, or a language other than English, is necessary.

Among the duties the bilingual/bicultural paraprofessionals in communicative disorders might perform are the following:

1. The bilingual/bicultural paraprofessional could assist the speech/language clinician in the screening and assessment of speech, language, and hearing of clients. P.L. 94-142 and P.L. 95-561 and other regulations require the testing of children in the schools must be done in their native language. This approach would require either the employment of bilingual/bicultural speech/language clinicians or the use of bilingual/bicultural paraprofessionals. The latter appears to be the most practical solution at this time since bilingual/bicultural speech/language clinicians are few in numbers.

   The monolingual English speech/language clinician *cannot adequately assess* the communicative abilities of individuals who speak languages other than English. A translator is generally of limited assistance because of unfamiliarity with methods of describing language, assessment procedures, language development, or the use of terminology. Therefore, a trained bilingual/bicultural paraprofessional is not only able to translate, but can also interpret stimuli and responses between the client and the speech/language clinician, and administer assessment procedures directly to the client in the native language.
2. The bilingual/bicultural paraprofessional can provide direct intervention with the clients by implementing an instructional program planned by the speech/language clinician. The bilingual/bicultural paraprofessional can also assist the client in developing communicative behaviors in the native language utilizing culturally and linguistically relevant materials and activities for the sessions.
3. The bilingual/bicultural paraprofessional may work directly with group members who are progressing at a slower pace in therapy. Individual assistance can be provided to those who are having difficulty keeping pace with their peers.
4. The bilingual/bicultural paraprofessional can serve as translator and interpreter for the client and the client's family. On occasion, direct translation is all that is necessary for the speech/language clinician, the client, and the family to understand each other. However, at other times, it may be necessary for the bilingual/bicultural paraprofessional to interpret or explain concepts to the client and/or the family. For this reason it is important that the bilingual/bicultural paraprofessional have some specific training in speech pathology about necessary clinical information so that the paraprofessional can provide this service competently. An untrained paraprofessional or translator cannot meet this need adequately.
5. The bilingual/bicultural paraprofessional may work as a liaison between the speech/language clinician and community agencies involved with social, medical, psychological, and rehabilitative services. The bilingual/bicultural paraprofessional is selected from the bilingual community and thus can become aware of agencies and personnel more readily than the speech/language clinician who does not represent the community. Such communication with community agencies can be very important to the speech/language clinician and the clients when making referrals and providing cooperative services.
6. The bilingual/bicultural paraprofessional may assist in counseling the client and the family by explaining the findings of diagnostic

evaluation and plans for treatment, as well as assisting in bringing parent input into the individualized educational plan (IEP). In addition, the bilingual/bicultural paraprofessional can keep the family informed of the progress of the client or changes in the instructional program. In situations in which the client speaks English, but the family does not, the bilingual/bicultural paraprofessional is a valuable intermediary who keeps the family informed of changes in the client's communication skills the family cannot directly observe.

There are, no doubt, additional roles for the bilingual/bicultural paraprofessional in speech/language pathology that are not outlined here. It is apparent that this individual is becoming a necessary part of working with bilingual LEP and NEP clients. Since the majority of the trained speech/language clinicians in the United States speak only one language, training bilingual/bicultural paraprofessionals to assist in the rehabilitative process is helpful to professionals, to clients, and to the minority communities that need to be informed so that they can participate in the services available.

How Should Paraprofessionals Be Trained?

Given the premise that bilingual/bicultural paraprofessionals are needed and can be utilized, proper training is both necessary and complex. Setting, time, and curriculum can all be points of decision for those planning the training program. For example, training can take place in preservice workshops, at inservice meetings, or through academic courses in colleges and universities. There is no consensus on which approach is most effective. However, the training must be done before paraprofessionals are effective.

The ASHA guidelines of 1970 specified a general outline of the curriculum for training paraprofessionals, but did not specify the length of time that training programs should take. Guidelines did indicate that the duration of the program can vary from a few days to several weeks, depending on the nature of the work to be performed. The Committee on Supportive Personnel recommended that the training of paraprofessionals should be determined by the task to be performed and should be the responsibility of the organization that will employ them. Guidelines for the training curriculum included the following: (a) orientation regarding the significance of human communication, (b) ethical responsibilities of the professional clinician, client, and employing organization, (c) administrative structure of the speech and hearing program, (d) the types of tasks to be performed by the clinician, and (e) recognition and identification of client's responses.

The general function of the paraprofessional is to enhance the effectiveness of the [illegible]h/language pathology services; therefore, training should be confined [illegible]actical, relevant information that will help the paraprofessional function in that capacity. The training should be appropriate to the setting in which the paraprofessional will work and the duties to be performed. Training that is specific to a particular type of clientele or setting should be done within the organization in which the paraprofessional will work.

Paraprofessional training programs developed by Alpiner, et al. (1970) and by Scalero and Eskenazi (1976) include information in the following areas: (a) the profession of communicative disorders and the role of the speech, language, and hearing clinicians and their support personnel, (b) professional responsibilities and the code of ethics, (c) normal development of speech and language in children, contrasted with children who develop disorders in communication, (d) anatomy and physiology of the speech and hearing mechanism, (e) identification and treatment of speech, language, and hearing disorders, (f) evaluation of clients' progress, (g) administrative structure of the school district, and (h) the nature of second language acquisition.

In summary, the paraprofessional can perform a variety of functions and duties within a training program to provide necessary knowledge. The bilingual/bicultural paraprofessional, however, needs as much information as possible about communicative disorders, their diagnosis, and treatment, as well as specified training about the role of a bilingual specialist.

A Model Training Program

This proposed program includes objectives, rationales, and suggested areas for a preservice training program for bilingual/bicultural paraprofessionals in speech/language pathology. The first objective is related to bicultural sensitivity and is therefore presented in greater detail than the other objectives.

Objective I.

The trainees will identify the differences between their culture and that of mainstream America.

Rationale. While many bilingual/bicultural individuals understand that major differences exist between their culture and that of the dominant culture, they are often unaware of specific differences. Some believe that their lifestyle, values, and perspectives are not only different, but inferior to those of the dominant culture and must be modified. Assuming that one of the roles of bilingual/bicultural paraprofessionals is to serve as models for the communicatively handicapped client, it is necessary for them to become both knowledgeable and proud of their own culture, as well as know about the dominant culture.

Areas covered. Culture includes the attitudes, val[illegible] customs, and beliefs of a group of people. Important aspects of c[illegible] are religion, political and economic beliefs, dress, language, food, education, and social organization. When studying culture it is necessary to understand the structures of one group and how it compares with another. The following are some of the cultural factors that should be included in the training program for bilingual/bicultural paraprofessionals:

1. Language: Linguistic description and analyses are necessary features of a training program for bilingual/bicultural paraprofessionals. Both verbal and nonverbal aspects must be included. Verbal aspects should include descriptive information that highlights differences between their language and English in syntax, semantics, phonology, and prosody. Nonverbal aspects should include proxemics, chronemics, haptics, and kinesics. Such behaviors represent a large portion of the communicative process and cause many of the conflicts and clashes in cross-cultural communication. When individuals from different cultures interpret nonverbal information based on their own culture and experiences, communicative problems result.
2. Values: The variance of values should be discussed to highlight similarities and differences between the dominant culture and those cultures represented in the paraprofessional training program. Such training should emphasize differences in religion, attitudes toward education, family, long-term planning, promptness, age, handicapping conditions, traditions, authority figures, and competition. It is important that paraprofessionals utilize such information in assessment, counseling, and therapy.

Objective II.

The trainee will identify and describe the common speech, language, and hearing disorders.

Rationale. Paraprofessionals who will assist in the identification and remediation of communicative disorders must develop the ability to recognize the more common conditions that will be observed in the setting in which they will work.

Areas covered.

1. Normal speech and language development and behavior.
2. Second language acquisition, bilingualism, linguistic interference, code switching, and code mixing.
3. Characteristics and etiologies of speech disorders, including articulation, voice, and fluency; language disorders, including delayed language development and aphasia; and hearing disorders, including problems in acuity, discrimination, and processing.
4. Observation of behavior using videotapes of clients displaying various types of communicative disorders.

Objective III.

The trainee will help evaluate speech, language, and hearing of children and adults.

Rationale. One of the roles of the paraprofessional is to assist in the screening and diagnostic process; therefore, it is necessary to include in the training information about assessment of communication.

Areas covered.

1. Definitions of assessment terminology, such as diagnosis, diagnostic tests, screening tests, norms, and formal and informal assessment.
2. Demonstrations of the uses of formal and informal assessment procedures.
3. Interpretation of assessment results.
4. Use of assessment results in planning therapy.

Objective IV.

The trainees will develop skill in planning and implementing IEPs for communicatively handicapped individuals.

Rationale. An additional role of the paraprofessional is to implement IEPs developed by the speech/language clinician.

Areas covered.

1. Developing and implementing programmed instruction.
2. Preparing culturally relevant material for meeting therapy goals.
3. Evaluating success of therapy sessions.
4. Communicating results of speech and language evaluations to the client and family.

Objective V.

The trainee will identify by name and function those anatomical structures involved in communication.

Rationale. In order to work with communicatively handicapped individuals it is necessary to understand the basic anatomy and physiology of the speech mechanism.

Areas covered.

1. Structures of the respiratory, phonatory, articulatory, and auditory mechanisms.
2. An overview of the neuroanatomy and neurophysiology of speech and hearing.
3. Deviation in structure and function that could cause communicative disorders such as cleft lip and palate, aphasia, dysarthria, and vocal nodules.

Objective VI.
The trainee will demonstrate knowledge of second language acquisition in children.

Rationale. Paraprofessionals must function in situations where children are learning two languages. They must have an awareness of the methods of learning two language systems by children and the problems they encounter.

These recommended competencies are general guidelines and can be modified to fit the specific objectives of the training program. The content and extent of any training program for paraprofessionals are determined by the situation in which the paraprofessional will work and the duties they will perform.

What Are the Realities of Training and Utilization of Paraprofessionals?

Paraprofessionals have been trained and utilized for many years in a variety of settings. Universities, community agencies, hospitals, schools, and preschool programs such as Head Start have maintained a number of types of programs. The trained paraprofessionals salaried might be students, parents, nurses, teachers, occupational and physical therapists, aides, or peers. The roles of these individuals vary depending on the setting, but they do not and cannot take the place of trained speech/language clinicians who have advanced credentials such as state licensure or clinical certification from the American Speech-Language and Hearing Association.

While paraprofessionals have served numerous useful functions, their use continues to be abused in some situations. For example, in the New York City public schools, paraprofessionals are hired to "liberate teachers from a wide range of noninstructional tasks" (Grossman, 1972, p. 2). The use of the term *liberate* forces teachers to utilize their aides in limited, noncreative ways, including being disciplinarians and babysitters. The successful use of paraprofessionals means that they should be given responsibilities within their abilities and the framework of their training. Abuses occur when paraprofessionals are assigned to work without direct supervision and frequent consultation with the speech/language clinician. ASHA's Commission on Supportive Personnel has cautioned its members to avoid less than appropriate supervision of aides and misrepresentation of aides as speech/language pathologists or audiologists (1979).

A number of disturbing hypothetical situations can be described in which paraprofessionals operate outside their training limitations to the detriment of the clie [illegible] or example, if single word utterances in Spanish by a 4-year-old are accepted as evidence of "normal" expressive language by a shy child, a significant language delay might be missed. Multiple articulation problems may be considered to be dialectal when they are normal developmental errors or disorders. Speech patterns resulting from structural or functional disorders of the speech mechanism or from hearing loss may go unrecognized. Additionally, the professional is usually better trained to notice evidence of birth defects. Because of the significant parameters in communication, the paraprofessional should be carefully instructed and frequently monitored even when screening for speech, language, and hearing disorders.

Summary

Paraprofessionals in speech/language pathology have been trained and employed successfully for many years. They can provide valuable assistance in the identification and intervention of communicative disorders in children and adults. These paraprofessionals should be carefully trained and supervised. Bilingual/bicultural paraprofessionals can provide valuable assistance in communities where clients either do not speak English or speak limited English. They can assist in screening and diagnosing communicative disorders, planning and implementing the individualized educational plan, counseling the family, and contacting other community agencies.

Federal and state laws require that assessments of children's abilities be done in their native langauge. An immediate solution to compliance with the law is the training and employment of bilingual/bicultural paraprofessionals. The trained paraprofessional is then also available for delivering supervised services. The paraprofessional cannot supplant the speech/language clinician who has acquired expertise in communicative disorders, but can enhance the effectiveness of the clinical pathology program.

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The Consultee in Consultation: Preparation and Training[1]

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In the past, too often, the literature of psychological consultation process and training and the outcomes of consultation service-delivery have reflected a one-sided view of what consultation is all about (Mannino, MacLenna, & Shore, 1975). Especially vulnerable to this accusation have been those kinds of consultation most commonly called client-centered and consultee-centered case consultation. Typically, we prepare a psychological specialist to offer consultation services to other people who may or may not know what the services are supposed to accomplish or how to work with a consultant. School psychology is a prime example of a psychological specialty offering consultation services to clients who often have an erroneous conception of what the psychologist is supposed to do, no conception at all, or distorted expectations about what the outcomes of consultation services might be.

In psychotherapeutic practice and research, it is expected that the effects of psychotherapy will be considered in relation to the attributes of the persons presenting their problems and their degree of motivation for participation. In consultation, especially school-based consultation, we appear to have been so concerned with those who will be helped by our consultees - our consultee's pupils - that we may have ignored the very factors which can lead to successful consultation practice and also to a clearer understanding of consultation outcomes. I am referring here to our need to know more about the attributes and expectations of our consultees (teachers) as well as their clients (pupils); the development in consultation training of sensitivity to the need for a firm understanding of what both parties in a consultation relationship are doing and expect to have happen; and, perhaps most important, a systematic attempt to prepare consultees for what the process involves and how they can best make use of it.

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Many psychologists appear to show renewed interest these days in how our thoughts, values, and personal styles influence our actions (McKeachie, 1976). In areas as disparate as test construction and theory (Hunter & Schmidt, 1976), psychotherapy (Strupp & Hadley, 1977), and organizational psychology (Argyris, 1976) a common theme occurs which strongly suggests the importance of recognizing how people approach problems while engaging in professional activities. In school based consultation, we have tended to treat teachers as though they all come from the same gene pool and to deal with individual differences when they occur as "resistance" or as "entry" problems, both of which tend to minimize the critical importance of the differences among teachers and their preparation for participation in the consultation process (Friedman, 1976; Gallessich, 1974).

At least three consultee-related factors affect the consultation process in one-to-one consultation services in the schools: the immediate expectations of the consultee; professional orientation and knowledge about other professions which influence the meaning of receiving help from others; and the skills developed by the consultee to most effectively use the services of the consultant.

Ideally, preparation of teachers for involvement in school-based consultation should take place first in teacher preparation institutions. Teachers are not typically educated to use help. If anything, they are taught, implicitly or explicitly, that seeking assistance is a sign of professional weakness. Unlike physicians, lawyers, and even professional psychologists, among others, who are expected to seek consultation when making critical decisions in ambiguous situations, teachers are taught to solve their own problems in their own classrooms, and are evaluated negatively if they do not. Teachers have come to expect supervision as part of teaching, but supervision in education implies that teachers are not fully professional. Teachers do not usually ask for supervision or see it as part of their continuing education.

A point of view is needed in teacher education which imbues teachers in training with the idea that being a professional requires seeking consultation from others. Teachers need to know that teaching and the individual problems of pupils are often too complex for any one teacher to have all the answers; that all the answers are not in books or in the opinions of "higher-level" professionals, such as psychologists. Instead, they should be led to understand that learning takes place in the process of finding out the best solutions and alternatives in the here-and-now, given the limits of what is possible in the situation, and that using another professional is probably the best way of sorting out the good from the poor alternatives to action. Teachers need badly to view consultation as a professional activity which is their *right* rather than as a judgment on their competency or lack of it.

Course work in receiving consultation is highly desirable in teacher education. Such courses might include information about the nature of helping relationships, what special services personnel and mental health professionals can and cannot do, how they are trained, and what in reality can be expected of them under different circumstances. Training would be given in question-asking and in how consultation process proceeds, with analysis of how consultants consult and how consultees react. We have a long history in professional psychology of receiving the wrong questions and acting on them. We need teachers who can say "This is what I really want to know about. You are not addressing my questions. Let's see where we are so I can make best use of your services."

In this new curriculum offering, it will be important to help teachers know what they believe about teaching and learning, to help them to become knowledgeable consultees who can use consultation within a perspective of what is possible as well as what is ideal. Much of what is now considered to be consultation involves attempting to get at a problem presented by a teacher and failing to do so because neither consultant or consultee knows what issues are being addressed and what teacher-related factors are impinging on the consultation process and its possible outcomes. Given that teachers can learn how to receive consultation, the role of the consultant becomes that of a trained professional who is used by those who *want* help in problem solving.

In the absence of adequate teacher training in consultation, school-based consultation best begins with a clear and perhaps even prolonged discussion with a teacher of what the consultant can and cannot do, and with the questions the teacher wants to ask. In-service education aimed at helping teachers think about how they teach and what they believe teaching and learning are about is recommended as the best on-site method of preparing teachers to receive consultation. It is also suggested that consultation be offered only to these teachers who agree to use it with a full understanding of what are the responsibilities of both consultant and consultee.

Much of what is now considered to be consultation in the schools is really influence technique of a variety of kinds used with teachers who have not always agreed to be influenced (Meyers, Martin, & Hyman, 1977). A distinction needs to be made in consultation practice and research between those teachers who truly seek professional consultation and those who want service for children but do not see themselves as part of the process.

Research on consultation process and the effectiveness of training will present ambiguous results at least until attention is directed to the intentions of the consultee, the preparation of the consultee for receiving consultation, and the distinction between consultation to teachers who request it and referrals of pupils for direct service by teachers who do not request it.

Finally, it is suggested that research on school-based client and consultee centered consultation concern itself with teacher satisfaction and changes rather than with the effects of consultation on the consultee's clients, the pupils. As viewed here, school-based consultation is a service to other adults who work with children. The changes which occur in these adults as a function of participation in consultation is complex and needs our immediate attention. We have tended to perceive the teacher as a means to get at the pupil. In doing so, we have negated the importance of our role in the professional development and activities of teachers. To measure successful outcomes of consultation with teachers by evaluating-pupil-progress is like measuring successful outcomes of supervision of trainees in professional psychology by how many of their clients or patients are cured. We know better in our own work but need to learn who our client is in teacher-based consultation.

Recommended Readings in Bilingual Special Education

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Willig, A. C., & Greenberg, H. F. (Eds.). (1986). *Bilingualism and learning disabilities: Policy and practice for teachers and administrators.* New York, NY: American Library Publishing Co. Inc.